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Continuing The Historical Outlook

OCTOBER, 1946

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Contents

Literature and Social Purpose	<i>Ione Hansome</i> 245
A Post-War Approach to Social Studies Teaching	<i>Carlos de Zafra, Jr.</i> 250
Procedures in British Parliamentary Elections	<i>Wallace R. Klinger</i> 252
Airways Span the World	<i>Benjamin Rowe</i> 256
A Unit Course in American History	<i>H. Boodish</i> 259
Early Geography Instruction in America	<i>Heber Eliot Rumble</i> 266
Jonathan Edwards—Scourger of the Wicked	<i>Allan Pitkanen</i> 269
Visual Teaching Aids—Fact and Fancy	<i>William S. Miller</i> 271
News and Comment	<i>Leonard B. Irwin</i> 275
Book Reviews and Book Notes	<i>Ira Kreider</i> 280
Pertinent Pamphlets	<i>R. T. Solis-Cohen</i> 283
Current Publications Received	286

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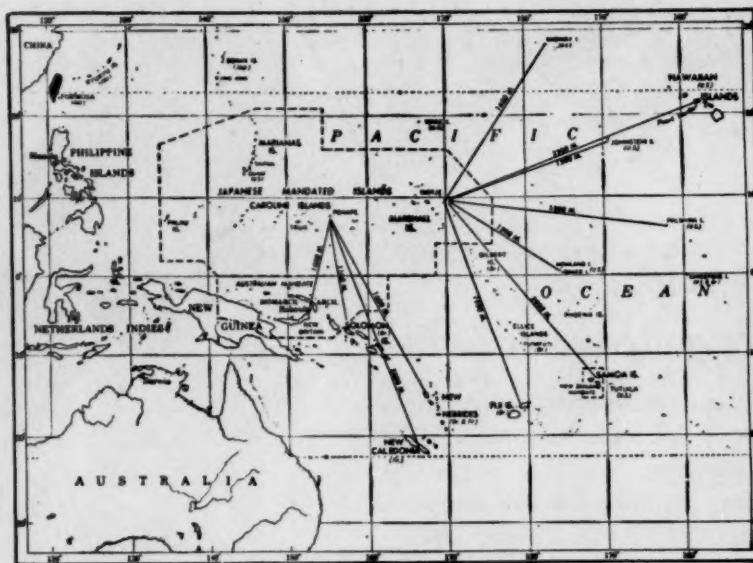
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The Social Studies

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Literature and Social Purpose

IONE HANSOME¹

Lewis and Clark College, Portland, Oregon

Does any rational person today doubt the extraordinary importance of communication, or the need for the dissemination of communicable intelligence? John Dewey long ago argued, rather definitively, that communication—effective contact of minds—is a *sine qua non* of democratization; it is both process and product. The danger of using the means of communication for fascistic misdirection is recognized, but that is another theme. Despite the diverse means of communication which science, invention, and technology have actualized, the book of literature with a social purpose bids fair to multiply in importance.

An instance of this importance was recently adduced by Professor Albert Einstein in answer to the question: "Is the atomic bomb capable of wiping out the whole of civilized life?" Einstein thought that if enough literate men, capable of logical thought, survived, and enough books had been lodged in various parts of the world, then the survivors could rebuild civilization. (Civilization, no doubt, can be reconstructed without *belles-lettres*.) In other words, a fair sample of the cultural heritage would insure the possibility of a new beginning. An inclusive view of literature is implied in that statement.

This essay assumes that literature consists not only of *belles-lettres*, but includes also

critical reports of the scientific, technical, and social arts. It is also assumed that among the high purposes in the present historical state of the world is the need for an active enthusiasm for the progressive enlargement of the fellowship of kindred minds, the solidarity of mankind.

In the nineteenth century Professor Thomas H. Huxley was the most articulate protagonist for the inclusive view of literature. He was supported by Herbert Spencer who raised the profound query: "What knowledge is of most worth?" Spencer's answer was *science*. Huxley argued cogently for the thesis that classical literature and art contained an element of unreality in the light of modern science. Matthew Arnold, who was not effectively influenced by the contemporary achievements of science and radical social thought, argued, not in the role of an antagonist of the wider view of letters, but defensively for the traditional classical verbalism.

The writer does not desire to derogate one jot or tittle of the classics. Indeed, a classic may be defined as an old book that has not become antiquated, a book that invites the soul again and again, albeit from an historical angle mainly. The point at variance with Arnold heads up to the partial scope and accent and selective interest he brought to literature. To ignore science and sociological thought would result in an egregiously skewed

¹The help and inspiration I have received from my husband, Dr. Marius Hansome, really entitles him to co-authorship.

picture of the world we live in. The world that was and the world that is possible are important in so far as they illumine the significance of the world that is.

Arnold defined literature as "a criticism of life" and the expression of that criticism could be found in the "best that had been thought and said" in the heritage from the bygone. The knowledge of the "best" talk he identified with culture, like an embroidery upon verbalistic behavior. Arnold's idea of culture was rather limited, Philistine, an essentially leisure class outlook. It excluded the changing, experimental, communal, and interrelated aspects of life. The quality of culture is revealed in daily human conduct that fosters the common good. Arnold did not go much further than the puritan New Englanders who thought that their parental obligation to youth lay in "bequeathing a rich inheritance of pious precepts."

Literature as a criticism of life implies a whole—an interrelated unity of many interests, ideas, events, persons, and institutional processes. What did Arnold include under the "best"—best of, by, and for what? Arnold was deaf to the cry for justice. Spencer, Darwin, Huxley, Owen, Marx, Ward emphasized science and sociology as the best extant knowledge. They found the best out on the frontiers where thought, word, and deed made nature and society bow to the common will and weal.

But Arnold, though he was middle-aged, did not understand those revolutionary, seminal minds. He confessed as much in his polemic with Huxley. Though he did lament that the middle class had entered the prison of puritanism and had "the key turned upon its spirit for 200 years," yet he did not forge a pass key for its liberation. Like the protesting monk of Wittenberg, he muddled in a dilemma of his own creation. If Luther and Arnold had reached out to science and social education they would have had the means to resolve their dilemma. Instead, both fell back upon authority, the former upon Biblical Revelation, the latter upon the old classics. A person like Dr. Arnold who bewailed: "We are here as on a darkling plain, swept with confused alarms of struggle and flight, where ignorant armies clash by night," does not offer any guidance in a changing age.

If a person announces that he is giving a critical report of life, then he must not omit change or any aspect of reality because it is unpleasant or baffling. A problem situation is a challenge to thinking. Arnold, the innocuous school inspector, met the challenge with cultural inertia and pusillanimity. He failed to heed his contemporary, Darwin, who cautioned his disciples to "Beware of the negative instance," "ignore no evidence of difference." The corollary in the social field warns the statesmen: Ignore social protest at your peril! Deliberate omission, or purblindness, or indifference insinuates contentiousness and apartness among social groups; it fosters isolation, instead of bridging. Consequently Arnold "wandered between two worlds, the one dead, the other powerless to be born." Small wonder that Arnold aged in unappeased bitterness and died a lonely soul. The stream of life had thrown him on the rocks. He muffed a rare chance to introduce a new element of interpretation. He imposed a lag where he might have disposed a lead.

The identification of culture with the best that had been thought and said in the past was, no doubt, congenial to a decadent group, to those whose creativeness had withered; it flattered those who found the good old days in the patrimony of the remote past. What about the best that was said by the progressive thinkers of his own day, men and women who started a new epoch in science, economics, and culture? The two powerful impulses emitted by Darwin and Marx, science and sociology, found Arnold unresponsive. Even now, a century after, the high school mass shows little awareness of the possibilities of the scientific and socializing methods of controlling reality.

The unqualified equating of civilization and culture has been a disservice to clarity of understanding. Work and leisure correspond in a sense to civilization and culture, as do means to ends. Civilization as an overall concept is really a phase of social evolution. Culture is a quality of human behavior manifest progressively in ennoblement and cooperation; it is most intense where there is disinterested work for the common good.

Among the characteristic works of civilization are literacy, a certain technological achievement, war, and male dominance. The

outlines of a new stage are now discernible. It may be designated as socialization characterized by an enhancement of the areas of the common good, the possibility of abundance for all, peace, and the liberation of women. It is fair to assume that literature can help to promote these trends. It is fair to assume further that the function of literature in a rapidly changing society is to illuminate the following questions: (1) Is high school literature preparing youth to become aware that we are living in an age of change, that authorities and certainties of the past no longer explain the present, that indeed, too many old interpretations have become obstacles to a better social order? (2) Are we frankly sharing with youth a knowledge of the conditions that make for success or failure in life? (3) Do we impart a full statement of the unsolved problems and the reasons for our failure to solve them? (4) Are we cultivating critical insight when we apologize for glaring social injustice and gloss over, if not evade, controversial issues? (5) What is the relation of the materials of literature to social purpose, such as the production of world fellowship?

How adequately do the curricular offerings in literature deal with these questions? The discussion of these problems will follow the order of enumeration.

An examination of some high school literature reading lists, some library collections, textbooks in the history of literature, and omnibus books of world literature, reveal wide and deep lacunae which should bring responsible curriculum-makers in literature to reconsider their selective interest.

(1) The only certainty in this world is change. That is *the one* eternal verity! Professor J. K. Hart felt this keenly when he generalized: "The crises of history have slowly enabled the race to rise to the view that security may be less dependent upon 'certainty' than upon the recognition of the endless round of change, and that progress depends upon escaping from 'certainties' that are no longer true." Or, as Marx observed: "The philosophers have only interpreted the world variously; the problem is to change it."

Thinking persons know that the nearest certainty today is obtained by the scientific and socializing methods. These methods, *par ex-*

cellence, make possible progressive approximation to the truth, goodness, and beauty. They are self-correcting methods.

The technocrats, for example, declare upon evidence from technology, resources, and industrial engineering that abundant good for all can now be produced and distributed on a four-hour work-day. The proof of the claim would emerge from a demonstration. How get popular consent to try the experiment?

Do modern producers of literature ask: How can we help to produce a socially experimental attitude in the populace? Where are the builders of Utopias, Utopias of construction and reconstruction? Do the teachers encourage the reading of the utopian literature of the past in our schools? A negligible percentage only have read Edward Bellamy's books. Shelley, Whitman, Markham, Carpenter, Traubel, among the social-minded poets are almost unknown.

Should the experiment with abundance succeed, what would become of the dismally resigned and hoary verdict: "The poor ye have always with you?" It would be chucked into the limbo of discarded certainties, along with the apologetic law (sic!) of supply and demand and the statistically blessed equilibrator known as the price system.

The old, dated interpretations weigh upon us like an incorrectly diagnosed malady that has become chronic; they hold us down like a nocturnal incubus. Yet, teachers hand them out with the imperative: "It's the lesson, learn it." And the ecclesiastic does the same *ex cathedra*: "It's the gospel, believe it, or be damned." Questioning is not invited. In a New York City school a youth was expelled from school for asking embarrassing questions of a history teacher. Dragged into court, the boy was told by the judge: "I'd like to have you in my private judicial chamber; I'd blacken your eyes and give you a sound thrashing and teach you some good old American patriotism." Such is the posterior way of authority! Angry words remain as a transmutation of an abhorrent deed.

Speech and writing are the two marks which distinguish man from the lowly animals. But man also learned to prevaricate. The duplicity of saying one thing and doing the opposite is a divisive influence in human relations. Grandiose generalities and abstractions are too often

accepted as equivalents of the concrete reality. Semantics calls this fallacy reification and hypostatization. What is implied in a promise becomes true meaning only in the performance of an act. Literature, especially drama and semantics, can be effective means in evoking a sophisticated point of view.

(2) To answer the second question involves a statement of what is considered as success in a given historical group. Under the present social-economic system, as Veblen² ingeniously showed, the highest accredited measure of success is such pecuniary adequacy as will allow industrial exemption, that is, owning for a living. The middling pecuniary measure is the acquisition of a private income sufficient to induce a fear of the implementation of abundance as well as its socialization. There are lesser reaches in the hierarchy of pecuniary success but unless they mean an income above that of the industrial classes, they are eschewed as poor business propositions.

The vast masses of work-people apparently are inefficient climbers since the actuarial statistics indicate that two-thirds of the population is utterly dependent after three score years. Despite this dismal prospect of a destitute old age, our children are given stories of the "Log Cabin to White House," the Horatio Alger and Go-getter type, and the examples of the Merchant Princes and Captains of Finance; they are moralized on honesty and hard work as the sure-fire road to riches. (*The History of Great American Fortunes* by Gustavus Meyers is not required reading—forsooth. It is encouraging, however, to see Stuart Chase's *The Luxury of Integrity* creep, as if by stealth, into some anthologies of famous essays.)

(3) The answer to the third question involves the responsibility which an adult generation owes to an immature, upcoming generation.³ We owe youth a complete truthful report. Thus we would feel justified and posterity would praise us. Moreover, by presenting the unsolved problems through the curriculum, youth would get an advantage for the run of life's gantlet; time would be saved for the enjoyment of improvement. A world of change must be faced with a dynamic

mental equipment. It is the height of delusion to attempt to abort the process of change by transmitting an outgrown tradition. That way we do a disservice to youth, for it makes them inept to grapple with the problems of the living. A great deal of the past is like dead wood, unfit either for a planked road or for a fire to extend the radius into the future.

Misunderstanding abounds as to how much of the testimony of the dead should be transmitted to successive generations. How much of the past do we really need to know? It depends upon our purpose and the problem before us. If one is interested in understanding a given problem, one would need only as much history of it as would throw light on the casual factors. Control or solution of the problem is not in the past but in the present and in the future, that is, in the minds of men as well as in the conditions and possibilities of the stage of the arts and the level of social intelligence.

With the enormous increase in the volume of knowledge, it becomes necessary to rethink the essentials of a curriculum. The lazy additive method of building a course of study must be accompanied by vigorous pruning, lopping off non-essentials, and non-fruitbearing branches. The figure of the tree comes to mind. The trunk may be conceived as encyclopedic fact, knowledge and theory. This knowledge should be available merely as reference. The rootlets and tips of the branches are the growth points, which by contact with the living juice and warmth of humanity carries forward, outward and upward the sympodial development. The function of education is to produce ideas for the public good.

Pupils often ask: "Why do I need to know that old stuff? What good is it to me to know Milton lost out on paradise? Or, why bother with a silly essay by Agnes Repplier on 'A Kitten?'" How many teachers sidestep the question by saying: "Well, it's good for you; it will broaden your background; it might come handy; the course of study prescribes it; you need it to get into college; you ought to show some appreciation of the past."

In regard to appreciation of the past, rational people would agree with Walt Whitman that "He most honors my style who learns under it to excel the teacher." The idolatry of the archaic past is signally illustrated by

² Cf. *The Theory of Leisure Class* (New York, 1935).

³ See Marius Hansome, "Teen-Agers Also Have Opinions," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXXVII (January, 1946), 18-23.

José Clemente Orozco, mural artist. With compelling irony he painted a fresco on the walls of Baker Library, Dartmouth College. The background shows a world in flame while the foreground depicts a huge skeleton lying on the delivery table, in the second stage of labor, attended by an academic obstetrician clad in a dark gown and mortar board. He delivers still-born skeletons in the form of tumbling tomes containing the received testimony of the dead. The artist probably had in mind a war-mad world burning itself out through hatred, ignorance, prejudice, competition, and exploitation, while the schools and churches reproduce the dry bones of antiquity.

(4) Progressive educators will agree that one function of schooling is to produce critical insight and socialized behavior. To be critical implies that one is cognizant of the various interests in a community or situation. It follows that one must have special regard for controversial matters. If dissonant opinions are excluded, the school renounces any pretense to objective, scientific dealing. The voices of dissent⁴ in literature are generally inaudible in the classroom.

How many of our students know even the names of many of the world's revolutionary poets, dramatists, and novelists? The writer confesses with non-conformist frankness that Rousseau's *The New Heloise*, Godwin's *Caleb Williams*, Shelley's *Queen Mab*, Morris' *News from Nowhere*, Nexö's *Pelle the Conqueror* were never given mention in college literature. Walt Whitman, Edwin Markham, Jack London, Theodore Dreiser, Charlotte Perkins Gilman, Maxim Gorky, Emile Zola, Henry Barbusse, Romain Rolland, Anatole France, Selma Lagerlöf, Ellen Key, Ernst Toller, Prince Kropotkin, among other authors of the recent past with a revolutionary social motive ought to be considered in high school. They really ought to be!

Serious contemporary writers and artists should become known to pupils in the public schools where the love of reading should hold equal place with the acquisition of other skills.

⁴ See Upton Sinclair, *The Cry for Justice* (Philadelphia, 1915), also *An Anthology of Revolutionary Poetry*, Marcus Graham (Ed.), (New York).

⁵ See R. R. Reichert and H. R. Laslett, "A Study of the Value of High School Literature Courses," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, (September, 1939).

Failure to awaken a love for books⁵ reflects upon the efficiency of the school system with the consequent discouragement to the creative impulse in living authors. Charles Lamb unwittingly depreciated the living when he mused: "Whenever a new book comes out, I take down an old one." If everyone followed his example or that of the present-day cultists who shout their adulation of lager-books of pre-Darwinian vintage, then the living writers might as well change their occupation to that of bartender! Those medieval cultists may be in collusion with the publishers of reprints of the testimony of the dead?⁶ Let us judge our ancestors fairly, but let us foster the living creative beings that we may emulate the ancient good by doing the better. Parenthetically, it is pertinent to suggest that it is educationally unsound procedure to start youth off reading books full of archaic error until their critical sense has been adequately developed.

A heavier dose of both natural and social science properly administered would help. Alas, "The age of science," declares Professor Anton J. Carlson,⁷ "has not as yet come to the universities and colleges since the average total teaching budget going for the instruction in the natural sciences is only twenty per cent." The expenditure for social science is still less. The quality of science teaching on the secondary level depends in the first instance upon what and how it is carried on in the seats of the higher learning.

(5) The problem of what materials of literature will conduce to the production of an objective, socialized attitude without which the foundations of the international and world fellowship cannot be built has been the focus throughout this essay. We must in Goethe's warning: "Look where the good world holds together, look where it falls apart." Are there any materials *qua* materials that will guarantee to produce the socialized personality? At this point the reader may like to inquire how he or she achieved a liberated mind and a world-minded point of view. In the analysis, quite likely some marvelously in-

⁶ Cf. Mary M. Colum, *From These Roots* (New York).

⁷ Anton J. Carlson, "The Offerings and Facilities in the Natural Sciences in the Liberal Arts Colleges," *The North Central Association Quarterly* (October, 1943).

spiring, because clarifying, book or pamphlet was the cause.

At the moment many public-spirited persons urge the need for international law as a means to world peace. U. S. Senator Fulbright, himself an educator, is quite vocal in behalf of law. It is true that sometimes legislation may be effective in creating new behavior. But, along with law and codes in the international field we need far more contact among peoples through commerce, mass travel, conferences, exchange of students and teachers, intercommunication, world language. When people become understanding and friendly they have generated their own cohesive amalgam.

We must build a world community in which human beings cannot help but grow into that state of social maturity in which the individual and collective life functions as a matter of course in the interest of the public good. To this end a vast and varied program of social education is needed. All persons who are engaged in communication must ask: What can

we do toward the building of the world cooperative community?

There are those who belittle the efficacy of education. Robert Owen was not among these. He wrote confidently: "Any general character, from the best to the worst, from the most ignorant to the most enlightened, may be given to any community, even to the world at large, by the application of proper means."

Among these means the quality of educational materials will make a difference. Materials alone may not engender the virtues of freedom and fellowship. Like morality, these virtues grow out of the activities of life, out of organized togetherness and democratic methods. However, materials do help to clarify, to guide, to enthuse, to strengthen our courage and thereby justify our mutual endeavor. Creative writers have a leading role to play in the drama toward world solidarity, and, responsible teachers must revamp the curriculum in literature so as to correct the present shamefully inadequate, biased sample.

A Post-War Approach to Social Studies Teaching

CARLOS DE ZAFRA, JR.

John Marshall High School, Rochester, New York

My reaction after returning to the teaching of the social studies after an absence of nearly three years are: a deep contentment in getting back to the work in which I feel I "belong," and—what is more important—an intense concern over the efficacy and the future of the social studies themselves.

Not only do I find the American public still spending more money for cosmetics than for education, but I also find that no intrinsic improvements have taken place within the social studies to remedy the New York State Regents' Inquiry Report's charge that "brighter pupils do not tend to take more than a minimum of social studies courses . . . [because] many social studies are not regarded by brighter pupils as substantial and challenging enough to be worth taking."¹

I find that the few innovations that have been made in the content and the techniques of the social studies are in no way commensurate with the increased demands upon, and opportunities for, education in general and the social studies in particular. While the whole world has been gearing itself to a new tempo and a new realism, the teaching of the social studies still seems to be muddling its way through to the next vacation. In a world in which the products of scientific inventiveness have already too far outstripped their social and political controls, the heads of eight universities have formally petitioned that there be guaranteed an uninterrupted and ample flow of superior mentalities into the scientific schools and the research laboratories of our country; but no commensurate demands for the training of humanitarian social, political, and economic leaders have been heard.

¹ From Howard E. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship*, which is Vol. VII of the Report (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938), p. 107.

Not only are the very same textbooks in use in our social studies classrooms that were in use three (and even ten) years ago, but it continues to require twenty years or more for the research findings of the social scientists to infiltrate down through the textbooks to the classroom. Furthermore, publishers are hesitant even now to present anything that departs from the tried and the traditional approach, although this approach has undeniably been found to be sadly wanting.

Those social studies teachers who are keenly aware of the world's accelerated development are today standing in stark, frustrated awe before the demands of our modern world that we produce optimum-functioning citizens in a dynamic democracy. Somehow their tools seem more inadequate in the face of today's demands than did David's slingshot before the threat of the giant Goliath.

As I see it, the social studies must either immediately and effectively alter their present ineffectual methods of trying to develop enlightened leaders and intelligent followers, or be completely by-passed by the accelerating deluge of daily problems as posed by our contemporary and complex society.

Effective improvement for the social studies must start with a recognition of the fact that an *informed* public is no longer sufficient; it must be a *thinking* and an *interpretive* public. Whereas the social studies teacher has heretofore considered it his function to teach and to test chiefly for memorized details, he must now consider it his primary purpose to stimulate the *interpretation* of these facts; for study of the past is practical only in so far as it sheds light on the present and the future. As Stuart Chase says so well: "Facts are the central exhibit of the scientific method . . . [but] on their recognition and correct interpretation depends our existence as a species."²

The value of the social studies to the student lies in what remains with him after specific facts and details have inevitably been forgotten. Louis Pasteur performed countless experiments and considered a multitude of specific facts before he propounded his germ theory of disease. Yet once this great generalization had been reached, the facts by means

of which he had arrived there were of themselves no longer important. It was the generalization, and not the facts that led up to it, that permanently changed the world to the eyes of man. Pasteur's facts served their purpose because they were correctly interpreted; the facts of our social studies classes have all too often served no purpose.

As a first step toward a basic improvement in the teaching of the social studies there appeared in 1929 a book by Neal Billings entitled *The Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum*. With this volume and its 800 generalizations as my point of departure, I devoted the summer of 1938 to the culling and the compilation of a list of seventy-three generalizations which I felt were of major importance and capable of objective proof to the extent that controversy over their validity would be at a minimum.

During the two school years 1939-1941 my wife and I, each in separate experimental classrooms in different school systems, organized and taught courses in American history according to these generalizations, to the pronounced interest and the prolonged satisfaction of the pupils themselves. From actual experience, we feel that this "generalizations approach" gives the needed purpose and vitality to the teaching of the social studies. Interpretive generalizations are the imperative capstone to the factual content of our social studies courses.

To the objection that "interpretive generalizations" degenerate to mere propaganda, we reply that the great emasculating sin of omission of which the social studies have been guilty in the past has been their refusal to take a stand on any issue; no conclusions have been reached on the basis of the facts available. The requirements for prospective social studies teachers should be set as high as those of any profession; but once the teacher is certified to teach, he should then be trusted with his generalizations in the classroom fully as much as the scientist is trusted with his uranium in the laboratory. If controversies *do* arise over the validity of certain generalizations, however carefully they have been worded, this would at least help to put the spark of life into the complacently sterile social studies as we have known them in the past.

²*The Tyranny of Words* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938), p. 171.

If the social studies teacher has a battery of generalizations sufficient to house any isolated fact that may appear, it is clear that any one of the social studies courses can be reorganized without the loss of a single favorite detail, and still have the supremely important generalizations added to it. The mastery of any subject comes when by comparison we discover the common denominator that exists among apparently isolated details.

As an illustration, let's take the generalization: "When the promised rewards of a cause are greater than its apparent cost, it will have a following." Pupils might arrive at this generalization through the study of such isolated phenomena as the growth of Christianity, the rise of Napoleon, the G.A.R. and pension legis-

lation, the advent of Hitler, the spread of the Townsend Plan, etc. With such a generalization thoroughly arrived at and digested, the pupil should never in his life underestimate the potential power of schemes which contemporary scoffers might dismiss as being "crack-pot." Pupils should be encouraged to formulate the generalizations themselves from the facts that they study, for a valid generalization once arrived at by himself gives the pupil a permanent mental growth. Furthermore, the pupil thus acquires practice in performing one of the highest and most useful functions of the human mind. The art of inductive thinking is the most powerful tool for progress that is at the disposal of mankind, especially when it is employed in the retarded and various fields of human relations.

Procedures in British Parliamentary Elections

WALLACE R. KLINGER

Hartwick College, Oneonta, New York

A general election, for the purpose of electing members to the House of Commons, is held in Great Britain when the period fixed by law has expired; or, before the expiration of that period, when the Crown, on the advice of the Prime Minister, dissolves Parliament. The Prime Minister may advise the dissolution of Parliament when the Ministry, having been defeated repeatedly on minor issues, or on a single major issue by a large adverse vote in the House of Commons, no longer has the support of a working majority in that House; or, whenever the Ministry might properly ask the electorate for a further mark of confidence to strengthen it in the performance of the tasks for which it was chosen.

The machinery of election is set in motion by the King in Council who directs the Lord Chancellor to affix the Great Seal to a Royal Proclamation for dissolving the old and calling the new Parliament. The Lord Chancellor is also ordered to issue the Writs of Election which are thereupon issued from the office of the clerk of the Crown in Chancery. The time

appointed for the meeting of the new Parliament may be on any day, but not less than twenty days after the Royal Proclamation. The clerk of the Crown sends the writ of election to the returning officer by registered mail. On receipt of the writ, the returning officer is required to endorse on the back thereof the date he received it, and a receipt is sent to the clerk of the Crown by the post-office official who delivered it. The returning officer, who is either the sheriff or the mayor, may appoint a deputy, but such appointment is subject to the approval to the Home Secretary, and such an appointee is required to make the statutory declaration of secrecy before a justice of the peace.

It is the duty of the returning officer to arrange for the printing of paper ballots at the earliest practicable moment, to take especial care to procure delivery after the nominations of the requisite number of ballot papers, and to see that there is sufficient number of ballot boxes and voting compartments. He must (in the case of a county within two days after the

day on which he received the writ, and of a borough on the day he received the writ or the following day, Sundays excepted) give public notice of the election. The notice must be given between the hours of 9 a.m. and 4 p.m. by means of advertisements, placards, handbills, or such other means as he thinks best calculated to give information to the electors. The notice must contain the day, time, and place of nomination; the days, times, and places at which forms of nominations may be obtained; and the day of taking the poll if the election is contested. At a general election, the day fixed for receiving nominations must be the same in all constituencies and it must be at least eight days after the Royal proclamation calling a new Parliament. The polls likewise must all be held on the same day which is the ninth day after the day of nomination.

On or before nomination day, the name and address of the election agent of each candidate must be declared to the returning officer. The election agent is the official of the candidate who is responsible to both the candidate and the public. It is his duty to see that the election is properly carried out. He is the sole legitimate paymaster for funds expended on the election of the candidate, and he is effectively responsible for all acts done in procuring the election of the candidate. He may be looked to afterward for an explanation of his conduct of the election. The candidate may employ as many volunteer unpaid assistants as he pleases and is able to obtain for canvassing, speaking, clerical and other work, but he may employ only one election agent. However, the candidate may act as his own election agent. The election agent may be either a voter or non-voter, and may act either for or without payment. A returning officer may not act as an election agent nor may anyone be appointed who has been guilty of corrupt or illegal practice within the last seven years.

The candidate may be any person over twenty-one years of age who is not incapacitated by reason of infirmity or mental imbecility; who is not an alien, bankrupt, or criminal; and who does not hold a certain office. Under the latter prohibition are included clergy and peers, on the grounds that they are already members of, or are represented in, the House of Lords; offices under the influence

of the Crown; and judges, on the grounds that the dignity of their position and the impartiality of their conduct forbid them entering into party conflicts.

The personal expenses of a candidate are limited to £400. The election expenses he may incur are fixed at sixpence for each elector in a county constituency, fivepence in a single borough, and threepence-threepence in a joint borough constituency. A further sum as fee to the election agent of £75 for a county and £50 for a borough constituency is allowed. The average total expenditure is about £1,250 in a county and £1,500 in a borough constituency. The candidate is entitled to send to every elector free of charge one postal communication of not more than two ounces in weight. He may make speeches and use other means of becoming known to the electors before an election.

The candidate's election agent sees that a number of committee rooms are secured to be used as offices by the party organization in connection with the election. These may not be on any licensed premises, that is, public houses, grocers, and others licensed to sell wine, beer, or other liquors, or hotels, inns, and railway refreshment rooms. Neither may they be in any house or room occupied by the candidate as a dwelling. All orders for printing and advertising must be given by the candidate or his agent. Unauthorized persons are guilty of corrupt practices if they incur expenses for issuing advertisements or other material for the purpose of promoting or procuring the election of a candidate. The name and address of the printer and publisher must be on all bills or printed matter, and no payment must be made or offered for exhibiting such except the hiring of "sandwich men" and bill distributors. Public meetings are held frequently during all hours, and may be held out of doors.

The candidate is entitled to the use of public elementary schools at reasonable times, may hold meetings in licensed clubs and premises, though the use of the latter is undesirable. The expenses of holding public meetings are legal but they must be incurred only by the candidate or his agent. The candidate has the right to be present at polling stations and does not make the declaration of secrecy. However, he is prohibited from interference with the voters,

and from communication of information obtained at the polling station. By appointing an election agent he does not divest himself of all responsibility, but he has the duty of preventing corrupt and illegal practices.

A candidate is usually chosen by the local branch of one of the political parties. The candidate must be nominated in writing on prescribed forms, subscribed to by two registered electors of the same county or borough, who propose and second the nomination, and by eight other registered electors who assent to the nomination. The nominating papers must be delivered to the returning officer at the place of election during such hours appointed by him for the nominations, and the returning officer must personally attend such place to receive it. The nominating paper must be delivered by the candidate, or by his proposer or seconder, and not by the election agent. On delivery of the nominating papers, the returning officer publishes the name or names of the candidates nominated together with the names of the proposers and seconders in a conspicuous position outside the building in which the room appointed for receiving the nominations is located.

A candidate may withdraw from the election during the time appointed for the nomination, but not afterwards. The candidate, or someone on his behalf, must deposit the sum of £150 with the returning officer. If elected the candidate is entitled to the return of the deposit, but if the candidate does not poll one eighth of the total number of votes polled in his constituency the deposit is forfeited. If, after the expiration of one hour after the time appointed for the nomination, no more candidates are nominated than there are vacancies to be filled, the returning officer shall forthwith declare such candidate or candidates to be elected. Such an election is known as an uncontested election. If, at the expiration of an hour after nomination, more candidates are nominated than there are vacancies to fill, the returning officer must take a poll.

The returning officer must, by advertisement, handbills, and placards, give public notice to the electors of the day on which the poll shall be taken (previously announced in the notice of election); the names of the candidates along with the names of the persons subscribing to

the nominations; the order in which the names of the candidates will be printed on the ballot; the location of the polling stations; the description of the voters entitled to vote at each station; and the name of any candidates who may have been nominated and subsequently withdrawn. At least one day before the opening of the poll, the name and address of every agent of a candidate appointed to attend the counting of the votes must be transmitted to the returning officer, and before the time fixed for taking the poll, the candidate must give notice of the names of his polling agents.

Before the opening of the poll, the presiding officer, poll clerks, counting assistants, the candidates' election agents, polling and counting agents, and every other person authorized to attend a polling station or the counting of the votes, must make the statutory declaration of secrecy before the returning officer or a justice of the peace. Normally voting hours are from eight a.m. to eight or nine p.m. Just before the poll opens, the presiding officer must show the ballot box or boxes empty to such person or persons as are present at the polling station, and then lock them up and place his seal upon them.

Care must be taken not to bring any person to the polls who is prohibited from voting. Anyone who does so, and thereby induces or procures such a person to vote, is guilty of illegal practice, and the voter is similarly guilty. Only British subjects, male or female over twenty-one years of age may vote. Persons prohibited from voting are those under age, aliens, unpardoned criminals, those guilty of corrupt or illegal practices, and those whose names are not on the register in force at that time. Provision is made for voting by proxy for persons absent from their resident constituencies. Such a person must see that his name is placed on the absent voters list by the registration officer, and must appoint his or her proxy, authorizing him in writing. The registration officer must be satisfied that by reason of occupation, service, or employment, the elector would be debarred from voting at a poll at a particular election.

At the polling station the proxy asks the presiding officer for a ballot paper, shows his authority, and the presiding officer then checks the application on his absent voters list before

giving the proxy a ballot. A person is qualified to vote either by residence or business, or both, but not in the same constituency. An elector may vote twice, once by virtue of his residence qualification, and once by virtue of his business qualification, or, if the elector is a graduate of a university, he may exercise the university franchise.

The Universities of Durham, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, Bristol, Birmingham, and Reading form a combined university constituency the returning officer for which is the vice chancellor, principal, or corresponding officer of one of the universities appointed by the Minister of Education. The returning officer for the other universities, each of which constitutes a separate constituency, is the vice chancellor. The combined university constituency elects two members to the House of Commons, while Oxford and Cambridge elect two members each, and London, Wales, and Belfast universities elect one member each. The qualifications of the candidate of the university constituencies are the same as for other parliamentary constituencies. The main purpose of the university vote is to represent the most highly educated section of the population. A university graduate may vote even though he may not possess residence or property qualifications, but no individual may vote more than twice even though he may possess three qualifications.

The voter on entering the polling station is directed by a constable to the presiding officer or poll clerk who asks the voter his or her name, and finds out if his name is on the register. The poll clerk then calls out the voter's number, polling district letter, his name and description, and marks it in the register. While this is being done, the officer or clerk marks these on a stub, marks or stamps the ballot on both sides, detaches it, and hands the ballot paper to the voter. The voter then proceeds to one of the compartments of the polling station where he secretly marks his ballot paper with an X opposite the name of the candidate for whom he voted, folds it to conceal his vote but so that the official mark on the back shows, and then in the presence of the presiding officer puts it in the ballot box. Accidentally spoiled papers must be returned to the presiding officer who, if satisfied that the spoliation was

accidental, gives another ballot paper and cancels the first, but does not destroy it. The presiding officer must make a package of any such spoiled papers for delivery to the returning officer.

The presiding officer must keep order at his station, regulate the number of voters to be admitted at a time, and exclude all unauthorized persons. When the poll is closed, the presiding officer clears the polling station of all persons except his poll clerk, the candidates' polling agents, and any constables he deems desirable to retain. After the ballot boxes are sealed to prevent stuffing, the presiding officer, in the presence of the candidates' agents, prepares them for delivery to the returning officer by making a package sealed with his own seal and the seals of the candidates' agents. Similar packages are made of the unused ballot papers, the spoiled ballot papers, the marked copy of the register of voters, and the stubs of the used ballot papers.

The returning officer must count the votes as soon as practicable after the closing of the polls, and in most boroughs the counting is completed by midnight of election day. Present at the counting are the returning officer, the under-sheriff or town clerk, the chief county clerk, and counters. The candidates and their agents are authorized to enter the counting room while police guard the doors so that others may not enter. In case of a tie vote, the returning officer may cast the deciding vote. After the count is completed, the returning officer seals up separately the counted and rejected paper ballots; and opens the sealed packages containing the unused and spoiled ballot papers for verification, and then reseals them. All other ballot papers and other materials packaged are sent to the clerk of the Crown in Chancery, who retains them for one year, after which they are destroyed unless otherwise directed by the House of Commons or the High Court of Justice.

Immediately after the count is completed the returning officer must declare the result of the poll, such declaration usually being made publicly outside the place where the count was made. The declaration of the result having been made, the returning officer must return the name or names of the candidates elected to the clerk of the Crown in Chancery by cer-

tificate under his own hand endorsed on the writ of election. When a return has been made no alteration can be made without the express order of the House of Commons. Having made the return, the returning officer must give public notice of the names of the candidates elected, and the total number of votes given for each candidate whether elected or not.

The House of Commons is composed of 615 members, of whom 300 represent county and 303 borough constituencies. The remaining twelve come from the university constituencies which are a peculiarity of the English franchise. Most of the constituencies return a single member to Parliament, but there are a few which elect two members. The qualifications for becoming a Parliamentary candidate are not exacting, and there is no requirement as to the residence of a candidate in the con-

stituency he desires to represent. A man may offer his candidacy in any part of the country, no matter where he may happen to live. The franchise extends equally to men and women who have attained twenty-one years of age, and is based on simple and easily acquired qualifications so that the House of Commons is a truly representative assembly. Because Parliament is liable to be dissolved at any moment, with a general election as a necessary consequence of the dissolution, the political parties must live in a state of continuous activity. As a result the electors are subject to a continuous process of education and discussion of the main political questions of the day. The interest of the public is therefore not confined to the occasions on which the electors are asked to vote.

Airways Span the World

BENJAMIN ROWE¹

Social Studies Department, High School of Music and Art, New York City

In the course of the war, at strategic points along the airlines of the world, and in the theatres of operation, the United States built a powerful network of air bases. They were as vital to air power as were naval bases to sea power. With these stepping stones the Army and Navy commands rushed men and materials to distant points in support of far-flung operations.

Will the Armed Forces strive to maintain these areas? Will the CAA (Civil Aeronautics Administration) take over? Will private American airlines be encouraged to maintain services at such points? Will the United States utilize its vast knowledge to prepare for eventualities should it be necessary? Or will our government make agreements with other nations to maintain functions and to service American planes? These are some of the problems which still require decision. Much of our strength has been dissipated since V-J day; will it be necessary to refurbish our airways, communications zones and facilities?

To the Air Forces had been given a primary mission to provide, organize, properly train

and equip air force units for combat operation in its sphere of activity, and to assist the other arms of our Armed Forces. In support of this major objective, the United States Army Air Forces had created the Army Airways Communications System.²

In the Army Airways Communications System, the United States Army had a complete world airway. Its personnel and equipment were scattered from the steaming jungles of the South Pacific to the Arctic wastes on one side, and from the rice fields of China across other parts of Asia and of Africa to the bulge of Brazil on the other. It was not confined to any one region; the world was its sphere of action.

The AACS grew from a handful of men before Pearl Harbor to more than 30,000 officers and enlisted personnel, who were stationed wherever our combat fronts extended, our transports flew or our weather stations were located. This group of experts provided the three elements so vital to the flying of almost every conceivable type of aircraft—communications, weather information and control.

¹ Formerly attached to A-2; Headquarters, AACS, AAF.

² The name of the AACS was changed recently to the Army Communications Service.

These men performed some feats which seem almost miraculous. In the Arctic wastes, they and Signal Corps men had been sent ahead of the sea-ice to remote sites with structural steel and a mass of supplies, under orders, to erect a radio station and to operate it on or ahead of schedule. They were heard from only when they came on the air to add their code letters to the largest world network of radio stations. The men themselves had been absent from civilization, perhaps, for more than a year. They had improvised effective apparatus for everything and anything from the manufacture of glass bottles to the making of the inner intricate workings of watch mechanisms, or the maintenance and operation of electric power plants. They had shown remarkable ingenuity in overcoming the difficulties and vicissitudes which beset radio communications in extremes of climate and of altitude.

Although AACS functioned as an operating agency, its men were among the first to land on many of the shores which were taken by our troops, because airways communication services were pillars that supported our air power. For the same reason, others of its personnel sat month in, and month out, faithfully transmitting messages in cryptogram, at places where no one but a weather man would ever have thought of pausing.

It is this Army Airways Communications System, which operated as an individual outfit under Army Air Forces command, which assisted the Air Transport Command and other Air Forces' commands to deliver huge volumes of air traffic flying to and between our bases. It was responsible for many army airplanes in motion—their taking off, and their landing. These planes flew AACS radio beams which emanated from antennas which had sprung up all over the world. It was possible for an Air Forces plane to fly blind all the way around the world guided entirely by AACS and CAA radio navigational aids. In addition to direction beams, the AACS gave signal warnings by means of radar against mountain barriers and enemy aircraft. Weather data supplied by the AAF Weather Service were transmitted by the AACS.

The AACS was one of the war's biggest developments. It operated circuits twenty-five

times as long as the equator, and transmitted more words in five hours than are contained in the whole Bible. Even though no two points on the earth's surface are more than sixty hours apart by air, a nonstop flight at 200 miles an hour all over the radio ranges and stations of the AACS would have taken about three months.

Its men were in cities where until recently no white man had entered. One of its stations was located alongside a sultan's swimming pool; at another station, fences had to be constructed to keep the curious kangaroos out, while still another was inside the crater of a volcano. AACS gave bearings to flyers lost at sea, or in jungle or on mountain top. It alerted and sped rescue parties. Had you named any dispatcher and control tower operator in the Aleutians, in China, in the South Seas, or the North Atlantic; had you mentioned a place where the United States Army Air Forces were operating, there you would have found an AACS man on the job. Its personnel were found in many uninhabitable spots. On the face of the globe AACS formed the unfailing and unbroken link, both at home and abroad, for speeding the airmen on their missions.

The war has been variously termed a war of production and a war of machines. Whatever else it was, so far as some elements in the United States were concerned, it was a war of logistics. The ways and means to supply and support our forces in all parts of the world presented problems nothing short of colossal, and they required the most careful and intricate planning. Logistic problems had a profound effect on our strategic decisions. To all who did not have to traverse them, the tremendous distances, particularly those in the Pacific, where it had been said AACS had a man on each atoll—the distances were not likely to have full significance. It was no easy matter in this global war to have the right materials in the right places at the right times and in the right quantities.

The rapid spread of the European and Far Eastern conflagrations, and their final merger into the first truly global war in history, forced the development of a constantly expanding system of foreign airways. These airways were the routes of supply to the many widely separated theatres of action. From each cor-

ner of the continental United States these airways spread—northeast, northwest, southeast, and southwest—over vast oceans to the battle areas of every continent on the globe.

Many planes, before the final destination was reached, often crossed thousands of miles of trackless jungle and steaming tropical swamps, unlimited arid wastes of shifting sands; they flew over the sea again, over level fertile, coastal plains, and up, up, up over the hump of rugged mountain peaks, thrusting their ice-capped heads nearly four miles above sea level. Storms had to be met, and ice and fog and bitter cold, but the airplanes which carried men and supplies, droned steadily on, their men knowing the radio beam was there, and the ever-present guiding voice of the AACS pointed it out to them.

The Army Airways Communications System was set up to "keep 'em flying" safely over these global routes. Its intricate radio network "took the ATC and other planes off" at the source of supply—"the Arsenal of Democracy"—and guided them all along the route, and at the end of the long and dangerous road "set them down" safely, among the fighting men who needed the cargo the planes carried.

At Saipan, control tower operators cleared B-29's, which returned from raids upon Japan's homeland, into the landing strip every twenty seconds—in the United States at a Fort Worth training field, control tower operators logged 700 landings and take-offs per day.

Radio communications and navigational aids were operated and maintained by the Army Airways Communications System which furnished the electronic nerve system and airway markers for this global, inter-continental air traffic. These services extended from the training fields and air transport terminal airports in the United States to the "end-of-the-line" stops at the battlefield.

At some places, no facilities of any description had existed. Essentials for the barest of living had to be brought in by plane or sledge. Then came the construction and erection of antennas and the problem of establishing power. Some places were only accessible for short periods during certain seasons. Army Airways Communications System personnel, radio equipment, and living facilities more often than not had to be flown; there was no

other way. Here the size and weight of the apparatus called for consideration. Sometimes the radio transmitters and power equipment had to be dismantled and flown in, piece by piece. It was quite a different story when everything pertaining to a radio station had to be built from scratch, and it was no small problem when the nearest hardware store and 110 volt line were a few thousand miles away.

To provide services required by aircraft operations, aeronautical communications equipment must be sturdy and dependable for twenty-four hour operation. It must be sufficiently rugged to require limited maintenance, particularly in isolated and outlying locations where inaccessibility makes the availability of supplies and repairs limited.

In the field AACS Supply Officers were called on to perform duties ranging from securing snow sleds to swamp skooters, from typewriter ribbons to fifty KW Diesel power generators. There were numerous sources of supply to these officers. From their bases they could draw installation and station equipment from the Signal Corps, gasoline from the transportation officer, fuel oil from the quartermaster, building repairs from the engineers, ammunition from Ordnance, stationery from Air Corps Supply and major items for the operation of the radio station from Air Corps Supply - Procurement Engineering Agency, whose duty it was to maintain at strategic points warehouses of whole units of transmitters, receivers, power units, and everything necessary to put a station back on the air without undue delay in case of enemy action, act of God or pure carelessness.

Most AACS equipment was transported by rail and water. Emergency installations and replacements were sent by air. Action had been taken to standardize all AACS equipment in order to accomplish this, manufacturing problems had to be minimized and the supply of maintenance parts had to be simplified.

In the early part of the war there was much confusion; some of the things that seem humorous now were serious then. A transmitter was shipped to Greenland with instructions that mounting screws could be purchased at the nearest hardware store, which in this case was over 3,000 miles away! Snow shoes and skis were sent to the British West Indies since

they were marked B.W.I. instead of Bluie West One, the main base in Greenland. In the early days of the war our supplies were very often "stolen" or the code markings intentionally misinterpreted, as in Labrador where the Air Corps Supply Officer took and locked up the AACCS equipment claiming that AACCS was the abbreviation for Army Air Corps Supply.

In the days following the entrance of the United States into the war, practically every unit of communications equipment manufactured, was for civilian use—only a very low percentage had been tested by the Army. Gasoline power units were shipped to many stations to be used constantly twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. Low powered transmitters were sent to the North Atlantic stations—at a time when little was known of radio blackouts caused by Aurora Borealis (Northern Lights). Since then, this condition had been corrected by the proper equipment. In the days when the emergency was very grave, shipments were duplicated, accounting was at its lowest ebb, equipment was unloaded at wrong stations or

off-loaded for higher priority freight and passengers. All this eventually was overcome by an inventory at the stations and by a system of close supervision of shipments.

Electronics and all of its various components have made the airways safer for American and allied warplanes. The many navigational aids such as the radio range, the homing beacon, the direction finder, air-ground radio communications, instrument landing, and radar are being utilized by the men flying the military, and now civilian, "air tracks." In the years to come, the air lanes of the world will be open to the commerce of the nations of the globe. The "air tracks" will remain and the additional safeguards for planes which had been stimulated, modified, or developed by the necessities of war will perform their peaceful missions. The radio, the teletype, the radio-teletype, and all the various navigational aids will serve the peoples of the world. The skyways of the world, tremendously expanded during the war, are ready to serve as the highways of the world.

A Unit Course in American History

H. BOODISH

*Chairman, Social Studies Department
Dobbins Vocational School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania*

PART III¹

The two units on American history that follow conclude the series which is designed to cover one year's work. Unit VII may require additional time, beyond the one year originally intended for the course. Although it concerns primarily the development of the foreign policy of the United States, its broader intent is to give the student a more thorough understanding of the nations and peoples of the world, with whom we have had, and will continue to have, close relations. The problem of the future peace of the world is a very important phase of our foreign policy, and for that reason has been given considerable emphasis. The time allotment can be expanded or contracted depending upon the students' maturity and the intensity of coverage desired. In certain schools it might be more desirable

to give Unit VII to the graduating students, to serve as a review of American-world relations and to focus their attention on current world problems.

Unit VI—BROADENING THE BASE OF DEMOCRACY

1. *Introduction.* Democracy in our country did not come about all at once. It developed by degrees, and the process is still continuing. The period of colonization laid the foundation for it. The Declaration of Independence, the American Revolution which followed, and the Constitution were its cornerstones. The Civil War, the first testing ground for this democracy, proved that a government of, by, and for the people could exist and flourish. It gave democracy a broader meaning. The people no longer meant some of the people, or those of certain race or color. It meant all of the people.

But true democracy still had a long way to

¹ Parts I and II appeared in the April and May issues of THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

go. There were citizens who were citizens only in name. Women were disfranchised. The poor whites in the South could not vote. Most of the Negroes could not vote. It is true that the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments were part of the Constitution, but politicians knew how to get around them. There were other practices which prevented democracy from developing unhindered. Senators were still not elected by the people. Political chicanery, the spoils system, and "Boss" politics were in the saddle in many places. Ignorance, lack of education, and indifference . . . the greatest enemies of democracy were still with us.

However, leaders appeared who sought to broaden democracy's base by giving more people active representation in their government. They fought against the spoils system. They denounced corruption in government. They waged battle against ignorance. They used the newspaper and the soap box as well as the halls of Congress to make known their demands. They organized new political parties and destroyed old ones. They won few elections, but they were heard. Democracy triumphed and was further expanded.

Then came the World War I and afterwards new triumphs and new setbacks. Back to "normalcy" and "Tea Pot-Dome" politics for awhile gained the upper hand. But even during this period, democracy grew in strength—women were franchised; the federal government gained the right to tax incomes of individuals and corporations; education, science, art and literature made new advances. The depression of the 1930's was another setback, but it revealed the need of broadening democracy at another base. A new philosophy came into being—the philosophy of the common man. And then came World War II and victory—a testing ground for this new philosophy. The battle for freedom is still on, and is world-wide.

II. *The End of the Frontier and the Rise of Big Business* (Two weeks)

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived:

1. An understanding of the forces that contributed to the growth of "Big Business," and of the economic and political forces that confronted our country, after its territorial expansion from the Atlantic to the Pacific was completed.

2. An appreciation of the role played by leaders in government, industry, labor, and other phases of our social life, during this period, and of their influence on the continued expansion of the democratic ideal.

B. Pupil Activities:

Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic.—William Guitteau, *The History of the United States*; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley, *The History of the American People*; S. E. Forman, *Advanced American History*.

C. Answer the following questions:

1. Name the first transcontinental railroads. How were they financed? In what other fields has the government offered subsidies?
2. How did the discovery of such metals as gold, silver, and copper further the expansion towards the Pacific?
3. Why was unemployment less a problem before 1900 than it is today?
4. Explain why many of the progressive movements of the 1890's came from the West.
5. List and describe the railroad abuses of the 1870's.
6. What was the Patrons of Husbandry or the Grange?
7. What were some of the causes behind the development of labor unions?
8. List the outstanding labor and industrial leaders during the period between Grant's administration and the Spanish-American War.
9. Describe some of the cultural advances made in science, literature, and education during this period.

D. Home and Library Work.

1. Draw a map showing the names of the different states admitted into the Union between 1860-1912. Include also the names of important cities and bodies of water in these states.
2. Write a brief summary on the following topics.
 - (1) The Panic of 1873
 - (2) The Pullman Strike of 1894
 - (3) Tariff and Politics
 - (4) The Redemption of "Greenbacks"
3. Identify in a few sentences the follow-

ing persons. Indicate the contribution each made.

- (1) Sir Henry Bessemer
- (2) Uriah H. Stevens
- (3) Jay Gould
- (4) John P. Altgeld
- (5) J. P. Morgan
- (6) Ulysses S. Grant
- (7) Andrew Carnegie
- (8) Eugene V. Debs

4. Write a report of about 500 words on any of the above topics or persons.

III. *Political and Economic Reform.* (Two weeks)

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived:

1. An understanding of the causes that gave rise to political corruption in government.
2. An understanding of the various reform movements . . . political, economic, agricultural—designed to end corruption and bring about an extension of the benefits of democracy to more people.

B. Pupil Activities:

Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic. Textbooks—William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. E. Forman.

C. Answer the following questions:

1. Describe the following cases of corruption in government:
 - (1) The Tweed Ring
 - (2) The Crédit Mobilier Case
 - (3) "Carpet-bag" Rule in the South
 - (4) The Salary Grab
 - (5) The Whiskey Ring
2. Define "the spoils system"; "political patronage"; "log rolling."
3. Give the provisions of the Civil Service Act of 1883.
4. List the functions of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Of the Federal Trade Commission.
5. Who were the Populists? What were their political and economic demands?
6. Describe Theodore Roosevelt's policy towards trusts.
7. Who were the Socialists?
8. Define the following:
 - (1) Initiative
 - (2) Referendum

- (3) Recall
- (4) Unicameral
- (5) Bicameral
- (6) City Manager Plan
- (7) Popular Election of Senators
- (8) Woman Suffrage
- (9) Primary Election
- (10) Direct Primaries

D. Home and Library Work.

1. Write a brief summary of the following topics:

- (1) The Prohibition Party
- (2) The Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia
- (3) The Elections of 1872, 1876, 1880, 1884, 1888, 1892, 1896, 1900, 1904, 1908, 1912
- (4) The Knights of Labor
- (5) The Industrial Workers of the World
- (6) The Haymarket Affair
- (7) Henry George and the Single Tax
- (8) The Injunction and its Use in Labor Disputes
- (9) William J. Bryan and the Silver Issue
- (10) Advances in Public Education
- (11) Factory Reform and Inspection Laws
- (12) The Eight-Hour Day
- (13) Child Labor Reforms
- (14) Workmen's Compensation
- (15) The Pure Food and Drug Acts of 1906 and 1938

2. Write a brief summary on the following persons:

- (1) James Gordon Bennett
- (2) James G. Blaine
- (3) Roscoe Conklin
- (4) George W. Curtis
- (5) Theodore Roosevelt
- (6) William McKinley
- (7) Grover Cleveland
- (8) Samuel J. Tilden
- (9) Oakes Ames
- (10) Carrie Chapman Catt
- (11) Henry Ford
- (12) Samuel Gompers
- (13) William H. Taft
- (14) Robert M. La Follette

IV. *Problems of Citizenship and Continued Economic Reform.* (Three weeks)

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived:

1. An understanding of the changing character of our population as a result of new waves of immigration.
2. An understanding of the problems that faced our country, beginning with the early decades of the twentieth century and leading up to the Depression of the 1930's and the Second World War.

B. Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the above topic. Textbooks—William Guitteau; C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley; S. E. Forman.

C. Answer the following questions:

1. What new groups of people came to our country after 1890?
2. What social problems did they create?
3. How did the professional politician make use of the foreign-born citizen?
4. What attitude should the native-born citizen take to the immigrant and his offspring?
5. What restrictive laws were passed to check immigration in 1882; in 1885; in 1917; in 1924; and in 1929?
6. What was the tariff policy adopted by Congress immediately after World War I?
7. What were the factors that caused the farmers' income to drop at the end of World War I?
8. What was the principal weakness of Harding's administration?
9. What were some of the causes of the Depression of the 1930's?
10. Why was the administration of Franklin D. Roosevelt called the "New Deal?"
11. What new social and economic legislation did it enact?
12. What is meant by government or economic planning?
13. What domestic problems face our country today? Can you suggest ways of solving them?

D. Home and Library Work.

1. Write a brief statement describing the following: (Follow the same procedure as before)
 - (1) The Growth of the Steel Industry in the United States
 - (2) The Elections of Wilson, Harding, Coolidge, Hoover, and Franklin D. Roosevelt

(3) The Railroads during and after World War I

(4) Cultural Progress—1900 to the Present

(5) Philanthropic Agencies and Movements

(6) The National Industrial Recovery Act

(7) The Agricultural Adjustment Act

(8) The Reciprocal Trade Treaties

(9) The "Lame Duck Amendment"

(10) Roosevelt and the Supreme Court Issue

(11) The Social Security Act

(12) The National Labor Relations Act

(13) The Wages and Hours Act

(14) The Election of 1944—Issues and Men Involved

2. Write a brief summary of the role played by the following persons during this period of our history:

(1) William H. Taft

(2) Warren G. Harding

(3) Calvin Coolidge

(4) Franklin D. Roosevelt

(5) "Al" Smith

(6) Russell Sage

(7) Julian Rosenwald

(8) John Dewey

(9) Cordell Hull

(10) Herbert Hoover

Unit VII—AMERICAN FOREIGN POLICY

I. Introduction. If we look back upon our 170 years as a nation, we can see what we might term beacons of light guiding our destiny in foreign relations. The first was lit by George Washington in his Farewell Address to the people of the country, and is contained in the words "no permanent alliances." During the course of our history, Washington's words were usually interpreted as signifying a policy of aloofness or isolationism from world politics. However, we didn't always follow our first President's advice because it wasn't always practical to do so, and because there were other forces working counter to it. Then, as now, we were part of the world of nations, and complete aloofness from international affairs was a physical as well as an economic impossibility.

Our desire for neutrality was based on sound and practical politics. We wanted to steer clear

of any foreign entanglements that would embroil us in a costly war. As a young nation we had plenty to do at home. There was a vast continent that had to be spanned. There were rich mineral resources that had to be developed. There were new industries that had to be started. We wanted no outside interference with our "manifest destiny." In this we were aided by the fact that we had two vast oceans separating us from the rest of the world, particularly the European world—where "power politics," national jealousies, racial hatreds, and religious intolerance—centuries old—were continuously causing friction. We were fortunate also in the fact that our neighbors to the north and our neighbors to the south were undergoing their own brand of "manifest destiny." They had too much to do at home (even more than we did) to want to hinder us in our progress. In fact, we were more concerned with their destiny than they with ours, and our relations with them were a complete reversal of our foreign policy towards the countries of the other hemisphere.

The second beacon of light that guided our foreign policy was, in practice, almost in direct opposition to that of the first. It grew out of the ideals that gave birth to our Republic and which we have ever since called "American." These ideals were the belief in freedom, independence, tolerance, and fair play, between nations as between individuals. From them grew our stand on freedom of the seas, which helped to get us into the war against England in 1812 and into the war with England and against Germany in 1917. Out of them developed our "open-door" policy in the Orient and our hatred for tyranny of any form whatsoever, which helped to get us into the war against Spain in 1898, and into the war against Japan, Germany, and Italy in 1941.

In addition, our cultural heritage, as well as our economic interests, linked us closer to some nations than to others. To England we owed our language and many of our customs and laws. Even after independence had been won, we were still great admirers of her customs, of her literature, and of her laws. To France we owed a debt of gratitude for her spiritual inspiration in democracy and for her aid to us in winning the War for Independence.

Today we are no longer a separate entity. We

are still separated from the rest of the world by two oceans, but this separation is of little consequence. The radio and the aeroplane have seen to that. We are all part of one world. More people in this country realize it now than ever. The future foreign policy of the United States will therefore of necessity depart from isolationism. However, it can and must be guided by the same ideals which have been the foundation for its greatness.

II. *Relations with Latin America.*

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived:

1. An understanding of the historical relationship between the United States and the countries to its south, together with a knowledge of those events in history that both helped and hindered amicable relations between them and us.
2. An understanding of the "Good Neighbor" policy and of its importance in cementing friendly relations in the Western hemisphere.

B. What to Read:

1. Read in your textbook the pages dealing with Central and South America and the Caribbean. (See index and table of contents)
2. Use library for additional reference material.

C. Answer the following questions:

1. What is the major European heritage of most of South and Central America? What languages are spoken in the different countries? What is the principal religion?
2. List the names of the different countries below the Rio Grande. What is the area and population of the five largest ones?
3. What was the Monroe Doctrine? What was Theodore Roosevelt's interpretation of it?

D. Related Work—Home, Class, and Library.

Write a brief summary of the following:

1. "Jingoism" and the Spanish-American War
2. The Platt Amendment
3. "Dollar Diplomacy" and the "Big Stick"
4. American-Mexican Relations during World War I

5. American Relations with Argentina During World War II
6. The "Good Neighbor" Policy
7. The Building of the Panama Canal
8. United States-Latin American Cultural Relations

III. *Relations with the Orient.* (Two-three weeks)

A. Understandings to be Derived:

1. An understanding of the culture and peoples of the Orient, of their historical development, and of their relationship to Western civilization.
2. An understanding of United States' foreign policy toward the Orient and of its effect on conditions at home and on the world at large.

B. What to Read:

1. Read in your textbook the pages dealing with the Orient—China, Japan, Australia, India, Russia, the East Indies, and the Philippines. (See Index of textbooks on American, European, and world history).
2. Use library and *Readers' Guide* for additional reference material.

C. Answer the following questions:

1. What is the population of Asia and of its adjacent islands? How does it compare with that of Europe? With that of the United States and Latin America?
2. What was the "Boxer Rebellion?"
3. What is meant by the "Open-Door" policy in connection with China?
4. Describe the present government of China. Give a brief summary of its evolution. Do the same for Japan and India.
5. What have been the factors responsible for Japan's rapid rise to world prominence?
6. What has been the United States' policy toward the Philippines?

D. Related Work—Home, Class, and Library.

Write a brief summary of the following:

1. Oriental religions
 - (a) Brahmanism
 - (b) Buddhism
 - (c) Confucianism
2. The Communists in China

3. American Fortifications in the Pacific
4. Oriental Immigration to the United States
5. American Economic interests in the Orient

IV. *Isolationism vs. Cooperation.*

A. Understandings to be Derived:

1. An understanding of the forces that cause our country to be drawn into world conflicts despite its traditional policy of isolationism.
2. An understanding that the forces that tend to cause wars can be combatted successfully only if all nations, including the United States, work cooperatively toward peace.
3. A knowledge and understanding of leaders and their contributions (negative and positive) towards better international relations.

B. What to Read:

Review pages in your textbook dealing with American-European relations; as, The Napoleonic War and The War of 1812; Treaties with England; Relation with other European countries between 1783 to the beginning of World War I.

C. Answer the following questions:

1. Define "imperialism"; "power politics"; "balance of power."
2. What were the chief causes of World War I?
3. What were the economic factors that contributed to our entrance into that conflict?
4. What efforts at world peace were made before the beginning of World War I? Why were they not successful?
5. In what way did Wilson's "Fourteen Points" depart from our traditional foreign policy? In what way did they continue our traditional foreign policy?
6. What mistakes, if any, were committed at Versailles in 1919?
7. Describe President Wilson's fight with the opponents of the League of Nations.
8. What were the principal weaknesses of the League?
9. What notable accomplishments did it achieve during the course of its existence?

10. What new economic and political ideologies sprang up in Europe during and after World War I?
 11. What were some of the measures taken by our country to prevent its entrance into another world war? Why were they not successful?
 12. What part did education, literature, and the movies play in fostering the love of peace in this country?
 13. Define Lend-Lease. What new approach to unity among nations did Lend-Lease inaugurate?
 14. What was the Atlantic Charter? List its provisions. What value did it have at the time it was issued? What value does it have today?
 15. Discuss the importance of the factors listed below in maintaining and promoting world peace:
 - (1) Post-War Reconstruction
 - (2) United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration
 - (3) International Trade and Tariffs
 - (4) International Finance and Credit
 - (5) International Cartels
 - (6) A "United States of Europe"
 - (7) A World Police Force
 - (8) Spheres of Influence
 16. What part can education play in promoting world peace?
- D. Related Work—Home, Class, and Library.
- Write a brief summary of the following topics as they relate to our foreign policy and world peace:
1. Nationalism and Sovereignty
 2. Pan-Americanism
 3. The Russian Revolution of 1917
 4. Cost and Losses of World Wars I and II
 5. The Problem of Reparations
 6. Inter-Allied Debts and International Relations
 7. The World Court
 8. The Nazi Revolution in Germany
 9. The Spanish Civil War
 10. The Popular Front in France
 11. The Hull Reciprocal Trade Program
 12. The Arms Embargo Act and Its Repeal
 13. The Fortification of Guam
 14. The Dumbarton Oaks Conference
 15. The Bretton-Woods Conference.
 16. The Chicago Aviation Conference
 17. United States War Aims
 18. The Repatriation of Refugees
 19. The Yalta Conference
 20. The San Francisco Conference
- E. Write a brief summary of the part played by the persons listed below regarding American-World relations:
1. Franklin D. Roosevelt
 2. Cordell Hull
 3. Wendell Willkie
 4. Henry Wallace
 5. Herbert Hoover
 6. Henry Stimson
 7. Elihu Root
 8. Woodrow Wilson
 9. Winston Churchill
 10. Lloyd George
 11. Neville Chamberlain
 12. Georges Clemenceau
 13. Aristide Briand
 14. Nikolai Lenin
 15. Chiang Kai-chek
 16. Mahatma Gandhi

Early Geography Instruction in America

HEBER ELIOT RUMBLE

Memphis State College, Memphis, Tennessee

An announcement appeared in the February 13, 1772, issue of the *Pennsylvania Gazette* concerning a course of lectures to be given in the hall of the American Philosophical Society "upon the pleasant and Useful Science of Geography." Would you suppose that many men or women read this announcement with any degree of enthusiasm?

The titles of geographies mentioned in colonial diaries, wills and notebooks indicate that the people who lived in America during the colonial period *were* interested in geography. We know that youths preparing for certain occupations — navigation, for example — *needed* a knowledge of geography, maps and globes.

We find no record of geography instruction in the town schools, or common schools, of the colonial period, but advertisements indicate that many private schools, especially academies when they arose, offered instruction in geography. Many children may have obtained geographical information through apprenticeship education since the apprenticing of children usually occurred by the time the child was fourteen years of age.

Many children must have become acquainted with the elements of geography through listening to the conversations of sailors, trappers, explorers and other persons whose interests made travel and a knowledge of geography necessary.

There was no instruction in geography, as such, offered in the colonial Latin grammar schools, but schoolmasters' accounts indicate that certain books of the Latin authors were recommended to the boys for outside reading—books which contained geographical material. By 1814, geography was being taught in the Boston Latin school.

Benjamin Rush, well-known in his day, stated in his writings that boys of twelve years of age should be instructed in geography. He recommended geography instruction for girls, too, for he said that an acquaintance with geography made a young lady "an agreeable companion for a sensible man."

By the 1780's, geography was being taught

in the American common schools. Much was claimed for early geography instruction. It was expected to furnish knowledge constantly needful for practical application in every walk of life. A knowledge of geography was of value in carrying on interesting conversation; it was helpful in understanding history. Geography instruction, particularly astronomical geography, was expected to elevate and enlarge the pupil's views of the wisdom, power and greatness of the Creator. It offered rational proof of the existence of a Supreme Being.

By the early nineteenth century, the question became not *whether* geography should be taught, but *how* it should be taught. In an article "On Teaching Geography" which appeared in the February 13, 1819, issue of *The Academician*, the author cautioned, "... do not lumber the mind with words alone; store it with ideas." By 1830 James Carter was proposing that geography instruction should begin with a study of the home environment rather than with the solar system.

Until the 1820's, the geography textbooks written for use at what is now junior high school level were encyclopedic. They were intended to be memorized, and were descriptive rather than explanatory. The method of beginning with the whole and analyzing through to the smaller units was employed by all authors. A general view of the world, the continents, the countries, and finally the states, was the plan followed.

Early authors appeared to believe that everything about the earth should be described. Much material was included in the early geography textbooks from the fields of botany, chemistry, agriculture, geology, history, chronology, statistics, theology and politics.

The format of the first school geography textbooks was uninviting compared to present-day standards. They were never larger than 12mos and some of them diminutive 32mos. Occasionally the wood or binder's board of the sides was covered with dull blue or marbled paper, but as a rule the textbooks were bound in full leather. Later, buff-tinted papers with

the title and other printing on them came into use. By the 1820's, the geography textbooks began to employ maps and illustrations to a considerable extent.

Jedidiah Morse, father of Samuel F. B. Morse, was the most popular author of school textbooks on geography from 1784 to 1830 when textbooks by Joseph E. Worcester, William C. Woodbridge, and Joseph A. Cummings attained popularity.

The early geography textbooks were published, as the writers often stated, because of the high cost and unadaptability of the imported English works. By the third decade of the nineteenth century, the reasons for publishing new American geography textbooks shifted to attempts to improve methods of presentation or to change the scope of the subject matter treated.

By 1827 geography was taught in most of the common schools, grammar schools, the new high schools, academies, and seminaries offering instruction at the junior high school level. In 1827 both Massachusetts and Vermont passed laws *requiring* geography taught in their common schools. In the same year a New York State academy appropriation law required pupils to have a knowledge of geography, such as was usually obtained in the common schools, before being considered as pursuing the higher branches of an English education.

State school reports of the 1830's show that while as many as twenty or more different geography textbooks might have been in use in the common schools of any one State, geography textbooks written by Woodbridge, and by a new author in the field, Jessie Olney, were the ones most widely used. By the 1840's, although Olney's textbooks continued to be popular, S. Augustus Mitchell's geography textbooks were in greatest demand.

During the second quarter of the nineteenth century, the inductive method of instruction gained in favor. Children were led to observe their surroundings for geographical information. By 1850, however, oral instruction and the use of the blackboard were being widely introduced, and continued to increase in favor throughout the century.

State legislatures other than those of Massachusetts, Vermont and New York became interested in geography instruction. The Ohio legis-

lature of 1848-1849 required that geography be taught in the Ohio common schools. Pennsylvania, in 1854, passed a school law which required the superintendent of schools of each county to see that in every district the teacher taught geography. Mississippi, in 1873, required geography to be taught in its grade schools.

By the Indiana license law of 1855, the Illinois act of February 16, 1857, and by an order to the district directors of Washington Territory schools in 1859, teachers of common schools were required to be examined in relation to their qualifications to teach geography. In Illinois, this was considered as equivalent to making geography a required subject.

The first physical geography textbook appeared in 1855; it was a text treating natural phenomena only. For a complete understanding of the political geography of a country, some authors and teachers believed necessary a knowledge of the physical conditions of the three "spheres" — atmosphere, hydrosphere, and lithosphere. Thus, the early writers of physical geography textbooks organized the subject matter into three parts treating these three spheres, with sometimes an added part on plants and animals, or perhaps on the physical geography of the United States.

Among the popular authors of physical geography textbooks were George W. Fitch, David Warren, S. S. Cornell, James Monteith, W. F. Maury, and Arnold Guyot. Most of these authors, along with George W. Colton, William Swinton, and Alexis E. Frye, published common school geographies during the last half of the nineteenth century.

Geography textbooks throughout the nineteenth century continued to present much science subject matter. The amount of astronomical and historical material found in the geography textbooks decreased until by the 1870's it was more rare than common. Several authors placed astronomical material at the end, rather than at the beginning, of the textbooks. The general plan continued, however, to provide for an introduction including astronomical definitions.

In the 1840's, the discussion of the relation of plant and animal life to the physical environment was introduced into the geography textbooks. Locational geography gradually lost in

emphasis to physical geography, probably as a result of the teachings of Guyot. Geography textbooks began to reflect the direct or indirect influence of Pestalozzi, by arranging the material so as to begin at home.

Authors disagreed as to whether the physical geography subject matter should be treated as a separate unit or in connection with political geography material. The latter viewpoint was favored during the last decades of the nineteenth century. It became customary to begin the textbook with a section on physical geography, and then to introduce each grand division of the earth with physical geography material on that grand division.

After 1850, in addition to classes in geography, many common and grammar schools were devoting a short period each day, usually fifteen minutes in length, to material presented by way of oral lessons. Much of the subject matter of these oral lessons came from the field of physical geography. Geography also was being introduced in the higher grammar grades as part of the science curriculum.

Through the efforts of Superintendent William H. Harris, in 1871, a general plan for a science curriculum was formulated and introduced into the St. Louis public schools. The subject matter provided for the seventh year was taken from the field of physical geography, and, for the time being, physical geography continued to be taught in the first year of the St. Louis high school course, as one of the regular subjects. Harris's plan received wide publicity.

Although the number of high schools established by the sixth decade of the nineteenth century was not large, geography was taught in the first year of many of them and continued to be offered in some throughout the remainder of the century.

From about 1850 to 1880, high schools commonly offered a science subject, or even two or three, in the first year. The science usually taught was either physical geography or physiology. If two sciences were offered, these

two subjects often were taught for one term each, and then both offered for a third term.

Where there were three terms each year, physical geography when offered was almost always required for one or two terms, and was rarely an elective subject in the first year of high school. During the last decades of the nineteenth century, physical geography, while continuing to be popular, was unable to hold an equal place with physiology.

By the end of the nineteenth century, the trend was to substitute biological sciences for physical geography at the ninth-grade level and to offer physical geography material in the higher grammar grades. In fact, the National Education Association Conference on Geography in 1893 recommended that physical geography — a broad treatment of the physical features of the earth, atmosphere, and ocean, and of the forms of life and their physical relations — be pursued in the later grammar grades rather than in the first year of high school.

When the Committee of Ten presented its recommendations for various types of high schools, however, physical geography was chosen as the science subject to be offered in the first year of all high schools. No doubt but that some who read this have studied physical geography in the first year of high school, either by itself or for a semester with physiology completing the year.

From colonial times to the present our youth have been interested in geography. They have been interested not only in their own country but they have hungered for information concerning lands where other people live. With all eyes turned toward our neighbors across the Atlantic and the Pacific, toward the south and north side, it would seem that the time has come to do something about the geographic illiteracy of American boys and girls of junior-high-school age. Let us offer them a course in geography of world scope, but with emphasis on the geography of America. Let our children be educated in the techniques of thinking geographically about world problems!

Jonathan Edwards—Scourger of the Wicked

ALLAN PITKANEN

Compton, California

Dark clouds hung over the glory that was Puritanism in 1702 as witnessed in the jeremiad of that pioneer preacher, Increase Mather, when he wrote:

We are the posterity of the good old Puritan Non-Conformists in England, who were a strict and holy people. Such were our fathers who followed the Lord into the wilderness. Oh, New England, New England, look to it that glory be not removed from thee, for it begins to go. Oh, degenerate New England, what art thou come to at this day! How are those sins become common in thee that once were not so much as heard of in this land!

A year later Jonathan Edwards was born—the precocious lover of the Lord who later turned lovers' songs into holy psalms—the only son among eleven children. In this dire period of history he was to become the religious visionary who would radiate the greater glory of Puritanism in shades of hell-fire and smoky visions. He was to imagine a greater glory still—the Latter-Day Glory—the redemption of the world which, by the supplication of logic to Biblical texts, would radiate from the New World.

This tall, slender man, with slightly feminine, not exceptionally impressive features, was not a great orator exactly, but his logic was like a dagger of cold steel and his imagination was on fire. In this time of religious transition he was called upon to embrace hardship and spiritual disappointment; he was to become a dark and gloomy star in humanity's crazy-quilt; his was to be the voice crying in the wilderness.

When eight years old, Jonathan Edwards, precociously interested in salvation like most sensitive children in religious homes, was so affected by a revival at his father's church at East Windsor that he built a hut in the woods so he could pray there in peace. According to his ten sisters who could, by their number, well spread a story, he prayed five times daily! But then everyone in town held that Jonathan was a model child.

Perhaps, to the wise, after perusal of that

popular best-seller, *The New England Primer*, there was a necessity for prayer. Did it not give the "willies" even to adults by such admonitions as: "Remember you were born to die," "In Adam's fall we sinned all?"

Hysterics, a common malady in the 1700's, was a sign of grace. It was a sign of keen graciousness for a young child to cry over the realization of life's cruelties, afraid of going to hell. A crying jag in which the whole family took part was good religious sport.

With this emotional background young Jonathan, at twelve years, abandoned his chapel in the woods, completed his youthful training, and entered the world of Yale College. The secular life, the mingling with all types of men, appalled him. He complained to his father of the "monstrous Impieties and acts of Immorality lately committed in the College . . . the Unseasonable Nightwalking . . . the playing at Cards . . . the Cursing and Swearing and Damning, and Using all manner of Ill Language."

But Jonathan kept apart from the "janglings" and usual collegiate pranks—"breaking of People's windows, Stealing of Hens, Geese, turkies, piggs, Wood, etc." Always he was the faithful son to his reverend father's teachings as the closing of his letters indicated: "I am, Honoured Sir, Your Most Dutyful Son, Jonathan E."

One of his idiosyncrasies dating from his college days always brought forth jolly comment from his worldly contemporaries. Whenever Jonathan decided upon a topic for meditation, he would walk or ride into the woods to think, and while in mental agitation he would make notes on bits of paper and pin them to his greatcoat. Emerging from his spiritual ordeal, he would appear a wild-eyed "scarecrow" encased in a shaggy paper shroud.

Dedicating himself whole-heartedly to God, at twenty he wrote:

I made a solemn dedication of myself to God and I wrote it down; giving up myself and all that I had to God, to be for the future in no respect my own; to act as one that had no right to himself in any respect; and

solemnly vowed to take God for my whole portion and felicity, looking on nothing else as any part of my happiness, nor acting, as if it were, and his law for the constant rule of my obedience, engaging to fight with all my might against the world, the flesh and the devil, to the end of my life.

To prepare himself for his battle against the godless and to steel himself against the temptations of the world, he drew up his "Seventy Resolutions" upon which he based his future conduct. One of these illustrations his Puritanism:

Never to lose one moment of time, but to improve it in the most profitable way I possibly can.

His Calvinistic doctrine shows in this:

Resolved, to act, in all respects, both speaking and doing as if nobody had been so vile as I, and as if I had committed the same sins, or had the same infirmities or failings as others; and that I will let the knowledge of their failings promote nothing but shame in myself, and prove only an occasion of my confessing my own sins and misery to God.

His asceticism is indicated thus:

Resolved, If I take delight in it as a gratification of pride, or vanity, or on any such account, immediately to throw it by.

After preaching in New York and tutoring at Yale Edwards, at the sober age of twenty-three, set out for Northampton, a provincial town in Massachusetts, to test his strength against the forces of evil. Here he found that:

Licentiousness greatly prevailed among the youth of the town; there were many of them greatly addicted to night-walking, and frequenting the tavern, and lewd practices. . . . It was their manner very frequently to get together, in conventions of both sexes, for mirth and jollity which they called frolics.

Marriage to pious seventeen-year-old Sarah Pierpont, at Northampton, brought eleven additional Edwards, one every two years. From this union, 1,500 descendants have been counted. A great many of them became America's very famous citizens.

In the early 1700's a new unrest, a new generation, had settled the sober Colonial New England. Men began to smoke in public! Young people organized husking bees and bonfires. There were "journeyings and unsuitable

discourse on the Sabbath."

The church elders devised laws to insure the return of piety. Connecticut passed resolutions against "covetousness, extravagance, and drinking." But still the people sinned—until Jonathan Edwards was given the vision and strength to save them!

Edwards, the greatest of the New England theocrats began in 1734 a series of sermons which developed into a revival—began in fact the Great Awakening. He represented completely the Puritan who had the exalted idea that the legitimate ruler over mankind was not a king, not a congress, not a press, not a lobby, but God; and this God was God, an awful Presence, an Immanence, in whose mind alone the puny material universe had existence.

This hell-and-brimstone revival preacher of all time could sermonize for hours. Although not extraordinarily emotional in delivery, his authority and ruthless sincerity carried the bitter logic of his argument so effectively that his audience trembled as though under impact of a blow; people wept and groaned as he compelled them to face their eternal doom. Every utterance carried something of the magnificent and awful. Women screamed and fainted, men shook with remorse, when he set forth the evils of mirth-making, company-keeping, and bundling, and urged them to come to God.

A typical description of an Edwards' seance has been pictured thus:

When they went into meeting-house, appearance of the assembly was thoughtless and vain; people scarcely conducted themselves with common decency. As the sermon proceeded, the audience became overwhelmed with distress and weeping, so that the preacher was obliged to speak to people and desire silence, that he might be heard. Many of the hearers were seen unconsciously clinging by their hands to the posts, and sides of the pews, as they already felt themselves siding into the pit.

Rev. Edwards' first converts in this Great Awakening of sinners were the "greatest company-keeper in town," and "a young woman addicted to night-walking"—not what one might think it means!

Then there was Phoebe Bartlett, aged four, who "feared hell and shut herself up in a closet, until she received evidence of salvation," and

so many others that the meeting-house had to be doubled in size to hold them all.

Religion had struck like lightning, and the hearts of common-men were filled with fear. Hell yawned for young and old—and especially for babies!

"God is very angry with the sins of little children," Edwards cried. Children were vipers—and since he had a houseful of his own, perhaps he knew!

Schools closed so that the little ones would have more time to repent. Merchants closed their shops to pray. Shrieks of the terrified, it was said, could be heard for a mile.

But the Great Awakening could not go on forever religiously. A group of unrepentant small boys awakened to the facts of life when one of them discovered a tome entitled *The Midwife Rightly Instructed*. When parents were devoutly at prayer-meeting, these unregenerate vipers met secretly to read it. Before long, others were corrupted as the book went the rounds; and then someone, perhaps one of the young Edwards, told the Reverend, who immediately disclosed the workings of the devil to the congregation and took a vote authorizing investigation.

In short time Rev. Edwards tactlessly and eagerly read from the pulpit the names of those erring youth involved in this illicit reading—and among them were the children of the elite!

The town was scandalized, and chagrined. Inquiries lasted three months. Confessions of the ringleaders were read aloud in Meeting, and after much soul anguish the affair was officially closed. Time passed; the "bad boys" grew up.

Six years after the "Midwife Scandal" Rev. Jonathan Edwards was dismissed from Northampton and the church he had made the most renown in the Protestant World.

Proud in his righteousness and more zealous than ever to spread the Word to the heathen, forsaking prestige, Edwards humbly went to an Indian mission in Stockbridge. There, with an unerring instinct for discovering the prevalent fun, he rallied mostly against the evils of rum—the "darling vice" of the Red Man. "If you don't do your duty," he scolded the witless Indian, "you will have a hotter place in hell than the heathen who never heard of Jesus Christ."

There, on the less-demanding frontier Stockbridge, Jonathan Edwards, in what spare time afforded to him from his arduous mission trips, wrote his great treatise, *The Freedom of the Will*. After its publication, he was called to Princeton College as its President. Shortly afterwards, allowing himself to be inoculated for smallpox, he temporarily befuddled scientific advancement by dying from the effects within a week.

However, so great was the influence of this last and greatest of the Puritan theologians that, as late as 1834, every citizen of Massachusetts had to contribute to the support of some religious sect. Now, in another generation, his theology is non-existent, his books unread, his mystic sermons long forgotten. Even though this preacher, missionary, philosopher, this scourger of the wicked, is now considered a prig, his intellectual and moral force held out through eight generations!

Visual Teaching Aids—Fact and Fancy

WILLIAM S. MILLER

Denoyer-Geppert Company, Chicago, Illinois

Professional journals and various speakers before teaching groups during the past few years have offered a great deal of material relating to "visual aids" and "audio-visual aids." Much of this has been so completely restricted to experiences with projection equipment that there is a grave danger we may develop a concept of visual teaching aids as relating entirely to this type of equipment. In many instances the impression has been left

that projection equipment alone represents the modern means of teaching visually. There are many situations where projection equipment is the ideal educational means, and other situations where this is not true.

Actually every type of teaching device whereby the pupil learns through the sense of vision is a visual aid. There are many instances where it is dangerous to speak or write in generalities, and this loose application

of the term "visual aids," when projection devices is meant, is one such instance.

For example, many of the articles and talks convey the impression that our entire military training and incidental education has been accomplished through motion pictures, still films, slides and similar projection devices. Such equipment did render a particularly valuable service in many fields of military training and proved highly effective. But Bulletin No. 9 (1945), issued by the U. S. Office of Education, entitled "Use of Training Aids in the Armed Services" lists ten different types of such aids. These are:

(1) Textbooks and manuals; (2) Bulletins, pamphlets, periodicals; (3) Training films and film strips; (4) Pictures and graphic portfolios; (5) Posters and illustrations; (6) Maps (including globes); (7) Charts and diagrams; (8) Special auditory aids; (9) Real objects and models, and "mock ups" of objects; (10) Sand tables and terrain models.

It is not the object of this discussion to question in any way the importance and worth of projection equipment in the modern classroom. The writer believes that such equipment has an important place in the modern teaching program. He also believes that considerable thought should be given to the characteristics of every type of so-called "visual aid" to provide an interesting and efficient balance. There are certain types of visual teaching aids more perfectly fitted for some particular phase of instruction than all other types, and care should be used in evaluating all such instructional equipment, to be sure that the medium most nearly perfect is first used as the basis on which the instructional experience is to be built. With this thought in mind let us examine at least a few such aids, to determine their properties. Out of a recognition of the basic properties of each type of visual teaching tool may come some help in the selection of the proper aid to use under each circumstance.

The blackboard is a visual aid, and we use it because for certain types of words and diagrams that we wish to impress upon the class it is the most efficient means of securing such an impression. It is far more convenient than to make a slide or to use projection equipment in other ways that might be possible to accomplish the same job. This is not detri-

mental to projection equipment; it simply means that for certain types of work as old-fashioned a visual teaching aid as the blackboard and chalk is still the best medium. It lends itself readily to change or addition. Therefore in our evaluation of the blackboard as a visual teaching aid, we would say that it has the characteristics of convenience, favorable location, easy change of copy, constant immediate availability, probably a greater spatial proportion than any other visual aid which we could use in the classroom. Should we add, but it is our misfortune that many teachers lack the ability to use it effectively?

Most classrooms desire pictures as a part of the permanent equipment, and they are visual teaching aids. We assign to them the characteristics of long-term presence, decorative or inspirational value, means to develop color or tone consciousness, and an ability to provide an atmosphere.

Globes are visual teaching aids. In fact, the globe should be regarded as the ideal teaching tool on matters relating to our earth, because it is a scale model, in three dimensions, of the earth on which we live. Neither the flat map nor the projection equipment is as describable in the field of world shape and relations as the globe because all other teaching devices are one step further removed from reality than is the globe. There has been a great deal of discussion recently on global concepts, and much of it has not been as clear to the child as it should have been, because other visual aids, have been used in many instances where globes should have been used. This is not a criticism of the flat map or of projection devices. It is simply a suggestion that the spherical globe is the ideal means of presenting global concepts, and beginning the process of learning of the earth as the home of man. It is a clear-cut example of the premise that there is one teaching device in most instances which is superior to all others for a particular purpose.

This has logically brought us to the flat map, and when we consider such an aid we recall that because of problems of size in the making of globes, matters of handling convenience, cost, and other factors, we have transferred various areas of the globe, particularly continents, the United States, and individual

states and cities, to the flat map. This type of visual teaching aid has a number of characteristics which we will enumerate later, but it also has one essential property peculiar to itself and to globes as well—they are the natural medium of expression of all things geographic, and of many things historic. The map has always been the language of geography. In ancient times rude maps were drawn in the sand as a means of showing others a route to be followed to reach a desired place.

In medieval times maps were drawn. They show us now how man was hemmed in, so to speak, by his limited knowledge of the actual geography of the world and parts of it.

In modern times, whether our travel is by land, sea or air, maps are the basis of our understanding. In this connection the bulletin "Use of Training Aids in the Armed Services" mentions: "Maps are among the most fundamental of military instructional materials. One of the first things a soldier must learn to do is to read a map. Both logistics and tactics are taught from maps. Relief maps, globes, polaroid maps and various types of projections are used." The civilian and military leaders were hourly using huge maps and globes. Shiploads of maps went with the army at the time of the North African and Mediterranean campaigns. Later complete map-making machinery followed closely behind the infantry. Maps were made on the spot, as fast as field data could be gathered and edited.

Before the invention of language, maps were obliged to tell their story entirely in symbols. Today they are a combination of color, symbols and words. They are sufficiently basic that some time must be spent in learning to read the map, to acquire a working knowledge of the symbols that have been used, and to apply them to the map at hand. First we learn to read. Then we read to learn. With proper understanding, the map has the power to tell a comprehensive story. Such a story in the modern classroom is intended to be acquired gradually, and maps, whether flat maps or on the globe, have been specifically planned not for use once or twice during a semester or a school term, but for constant use, just as the text or reference book story is absorbed item by item until the particular study is finished.

It will be recognized that this type of visual

teaching aid therefore presents a very marked contrast to much projection material. It would not be feasible to use the same slide, film strip or motion picture over and over again in the same class, because much of the effectiveness of this latter kind of material depends on the ability of the pupil to grasp significant points rather quickly, whereas map information has been designed to be absorbed into the individual understanding over a longer period of time.

We cannot too strongly stress this property of the map and globe. Perhaps these servants of education are not as glamorous and as dramatic as some of their newer brethren in the visual aid field, but they are still the most natural expressions of geography-based subject matter.

Maps and globes, and to this group should be added also charts and models, comprise a group which we would term *sustained use* visual aids. While probably the least publicized of all the visual teaching aids group, they are also the most used because they do typify our thinking. As our understanding of geography and history develops, the facts which we acquire are related to the shape of the state, continent or the globe. Mental or actual maps form the basis of our understanding. What are the general properties of the map as a visual teaching and learning aid? In what ways may the teacher make use of this equipment to best advantage?

The first such use should be one of participation. The map, globe, chart or model should not be regarded by teacher or student as an item to be viewed from a distance, simply as classroom decoration. The teacher should take advantage of every opportunity for members of the class to participate in the use of such aids. In the very early grades for instance, children should be taught something of the shape of the earth through a globe in the classroom. At an early age they will acquire an interest in locating their country, their home place, the North Pole, and other places which they hear about in today's news. Manipulation of the globe can begin to plan the idea of world rotation, accounting for night and day.

In the flat map, various members of the class may bring the map into display, identify the area, explain the legend that is used, become familiar with the scale, measure various

distances between interesting points, locate the area in relation to the equator, and through actual association with the map participate in the development of the processes of reading its special language. Everyone has a psychological interest in the things in which he has taken part; audio and visual images are buttressed by tactual images. This should be recognized in our selection and use of all types of sustained use visual teaching aids.

As these very brief suggestions have indicated, the map, globe, chart or model can be made to bring a great measure of reality to the classroom. Students can be taught to think of globes in terms of models of our earth, which they represent, and when this has been accomplished, a real concept of global matters will be developed, and global thinking will automatically be in terms of the earth. As the child comes to recognize the flat map as a cartographic expression of continental areas or whatever areas the map shows, his visualization of the actual region will take on greater reality. Models should be presented as three-dimensional representations of parts of the body, zoological or botanical forms of whatever subject matter may be. As such devices are used in the classroom, manipulated or handled by the child, there is a consciousness that in this type of visual aid the pupil is coming as close to touching or pointing to the "real thing" as is possible.

Summarizing then we may properly say that the map, globe, chart and model have these characteristics in common—participation, which of course implies also intimacy, realism, and sustained use. Those times which are always present in the classroom can also be very cooperative—they can and do help the more dramatic presentations, through providing classroom atmosphere, through offering possibilities to study an interesting point at greater length, through use as a testing medium for definite objectives in the course of study.

Lest we be thought guilty of the same lack of balance charged against those whose discussion of visual teaching aids have embraced only the projection field, let us evaluate at least some of the peculiarly distinctive properties of projection-type equipment in its application in the modern classroom.

The motion picture brings several elements

to the classroom, which the competent teacher can use effectively. The first of these is the illusion of motion itself. For training where a process involving use of the hands, feet or other parts of the body is involved, the element of motion can be a strong factor in establishing the know-how.

The dramatic is possible particularly in motion picture projection. Due to the advance preparation that is possible a great deal of drama can be packed into a film on the history of our country, in experiments in chemistry or physics, in the unfolding of a story in biology or other fields of this type. A field of waving grain, combines in action on such scenes as this, for instance, can be a more effective means of illustrating the story of a product, than a mere illustration on a map.

Presumably, projection equipment has the advantage of close attention, since it is normally used in a darkened room, where the only thing that can be seen is the subject matter that is being projected upon the screen. This characteristic carries with it some problem of discipline under certain conditions. The use of daylight screen and other devices which do not require darkened rooms has been helpful in this respect. The element of entertainment is an important characteristic in projected materials—the possibilities of "easy learning" through exposure to the subject matter. There is some danger that this virtue can become an evil, if the training program becomes lopsided in this respect. This would apply also to the training of the teacher, as well as to the attitude of the student.

Projection material has a great virtue in that it can bring a large number of images before the class, within a given period of time. For instance, it would be far more costly, and physically impossible, to tell through a series of colored pictures, the story of some great activity of mankind, such as wheat growing, the salmon industry, or thousands of other activities. Yet through the advantages of projection such an interesting story can be unfolded with a single class session.

For the teacher, projection material has the advantage of advance preparation. Carefully selected films and film strips should have been produced under the supervision of experts in a given field. Here again in education we have

the danger that the teacher may depend too much upon the provided equipment, and not enough upon what he or she can add to the classroom *experience*. We also have the need for careful previewing of the film, to be sure of proper application to the classroom course at the proper time. Some areas are finding a problem in the distribution of this type of material—the need for having it on hand at a moment's notice or relatively short notice is becoming more prevalent in the stepped-up courses of today, and hence advance bookings, withdrawal from libraries of films, etc., all present a problem.

Because films start rather early in the lives of many children—and usually in the theatre—the idea of entertainment is apt to be uppermost in the child's mind. He may regard films and entertainment as synonymous. This presents both an advantage and a possible psychological hurdle to overcome. The advantage is that it introduces study subjects as a possible field of further entertainment. The problem is to make clear that some phases of education must be met through serious study. There is no royal road to a broad, balanced education.

A definition of an efficient class has been given as one in which every one of the students is doing every bit of the work every bit of the time. A proper classroom to accomplish such an object is certainly one where every type

of visual aid that is particularly fitted for the work to be carried on, is available. There should be the needed devices to bring the element of novelty and drama to the classroom, to teach through the visual sense those things which people in their impressionistic years may best absorb through the projection medium. There should be needed visual teaching aids available for use at all times.

No social studies classroom should be regarded as a complete classroom without adequate maps and globes, no science class without apparatus, models and charts, no health and physical education class without its models and charts. Over and above all of these things should be a supervision to be sure that effective use is made of *every type* of visual aid because it is through the balanced program for all such training equipment that the greatest benefits to our educational objectives may be realized.

We need balance in education to meet today's conditions, and we need a proper balance in the devices which we use to accomplish our educational objectives. It is time to separate the facts from the fancies in our consideration of visual teaching aids and set up broad comprehensive programs that will take advantage of the strong points in every type of visual aid and carry us on to new high levels of teaching and learning, for living in the modern world.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

WHAT ARE WE TEACHING?

There must be a certain amount of smug satisfaction these days in being a teacher of mathematics or typewriting, for instance, rather than a teacher of social studies. One can pick up the daily paper or a news magazine and read it with some detachment and impersonal interest, for there is not likely to be anything in it to trouble one's professional conscience and pride, unless one teaches social studies. The wonderful achievements of science and mechanics are a monument to our mathematics teachers; the vast and intricate system of business records, complicated by innumerable gov-

ernment forms, bears witness to the efficiency of our commercial teachers. But where is the memorial to the success of those who train young people in human relationships? It is to be found in the daily press: the stark record of strikes, inflation, greed, riots, lynchings, crime, and dishonest politics. It forms a panorama of ignorance, stupidity and selfishness that would be difficult to match in any previous period of our history.

The summer of 1946 has provided an unusual number of horrible examples of what a democracy should not be like. Consider a few of them. Negroes are brutally murdered by

mobs. A number of prominent government officials are found to have been dishonest. Three of the most arrogant and contemptible demagogues are triumphantly returned to high public office by their constituents. An election is settled by rifle fire in Tennessee. Congress abdicates its responsibilities to do something constructive about housing and prices. Irresponsible and short-sighted labor leaders stop production, and selfish producers and manufacturers hold back goods for higher prices. The ordinary citizen of the richest country in the world finds that a year of peace still leaves it almost impossible for him to obtain readily such simple things as a plain white shirt, a can of peaches, a pound of nails, a length of clothesline, or a few dozen bricks. All of these and a thousand others are symptoms of disease, a disease which is both moral and mental. Perhaps the morals of men cannot be reached by education, but it is surely disheartening to find that their ability to think seems to be unimproved also.

Mental myopia, or the lack of capacity to think ahead, is characteristic of the average man. He is unable to accept a present loss for a future gain. We see it apparent in the buying sprees, the careless strikes, the arrogance and indifference of clerks and shop-keepers and workmen, and in many other ways. The ability to choose intelligently between the present and the future is an ability which differentiates man from the lower animals but its operation has seldom been less apparent than it is today.

Somehow in our educational processes of the past quarter-century or so, we have failed to include training in clear thinking about human problems. While the fault lies partly with everyone connected in any way with education, the direct blame must rest rather heavily on those who deal with the teaching of social relationships. To a considerable extent, they have themselves determined what should be taught and how it should be taught. Probably the one generally accepted goal of the social studies is "good citizenship," and the only effective check on the success of our teaching is the standard of good citizenship prevailing among those who have been in our schools. There must be many social studies teachers today who are asking themselves, "What have we been teaching?"

Perhaps it is time for all those concerned with teaching social studies to reconsider the whole question of curriculum content and method. Perhaps we have been teaching the wrong things. Perhaps we have been over-stressing the study of things as they are and have been, and carefully avoiding the teaching of things as they should be. Can it be that we have failed to show our pupils the difference between right and wrong thinking because we have been afraid to offend someone? We may, for example, study the labor-industry question in our classes. We try to present the picture of both sides fairly; we teach the pupils the facts about labor unions, capital, and industrial disputes. But do we attempt to teach them how they themselves should act when they become union members or employers? Do we try to tell them why certain practices are right and others wrong? Do we teach them how to recognize these differences when they meet them?

There are many who will say that this is indoctrination, and that the schools must not take sides in controversial matters. The truth is that a great many questions are controversial only because selfish interests have purposely made them so. There are many pressing social and economic problems where what is right and what is wrong is plain to any man who can rise above personal advantage to think about it; yet the schools touch on these things with the greatest diffidence and caution.

If those responsible for teaching in these fields would find the courage to agree on what is right and then teach these principles as facts, the social studies might eventually justify themselves as well as have the mathematics or commercial subjects. To fail to do so is to admit either that we lack the courage to do it, or the wisdom to tell right from wrong, or that there is no right or wrong, but merely expediency.

EDUCATION IN LOUDOUN COUNTY

An interesting little addition to the story of educational progress in America was reprinted in *Harper's* for July. It was an advertisement which appeared in the *Loudoun Times-Mirror* of Leesburg, Va., last April 4, "paid for by taxpayers." It was headed: "Keep Loudoun Wealthy," and pointed with pride to such things as the county's bank deposits, war bond

purchases, low tax rate, high property valuation—and an annual liquor bill of \$355,000. It concluded with the following admonition: "Do not dissipate this wealth to hire teachers. We cannot stand another tax raise of twenty cents. Close some schools if necessary. Tell your supervisor that school children do not vote."

One cannot help but be intrigued by this advertisement. There is a certain naiveté and freshness about it that other anti-education statements lack. No one doubts that there are people who think along those lines, but they usually contrive to put their objections in a more favorable light. Here there is no hypocrisy, no cant or humbug; everything is open and above board. Never mind the children; let's keep our low tax rate and our liquor!

This little gem deserves more publicity. Perhaps the NEA should reprint and distribute it; it should be worth a hundred of the ordinary appeals for better schools. As a matter of fact, one is almost inclined to wonder whether the taxpayers who inserted the advertisement might not have been school teachers with their tongues in cheek? In any case, it would be interesting to hear more from Loudoun County.

THE RETURN OF THE NISEI SOLDIERS

In a year that has been especially marked by numerous examples of race hatred and bigotry in the United States, any sign of a better type of Americanism is welcome. One of the most interesting is the report on the return of Japanese-American soldiers to Hood River, Oregon, as described by Richard L. Neuberger in the *Saturday Review of Literature* for August 10. Hood River will be remembered as the community whose American Legion Post voted to remove the names of Japanese-American soldiers from the service honor roll on the court house. The reaction across the country was surprisingly strong, and eventually the national headquarters of the Legion compelled the local post to rescind its action. Hood River itself was violently split over the issue, but gradually the right-thinking element, led by a courageous minister, forced the retreat of those who were trying to drive the Japanese out of the Valley. The bigots are not yet convinced that they were

wrong, but they have been compelled to admit defeat.

Mr. Neuberger's excellent article tells of the return of Nisei soldiers to their farms and orchards in Hood Valley, and how they found that, instead of being ruined, their lands had been cared for and kept for them by white neighbors who wanted to show them that the Legion and its friends did not represent the kind of Americanism that Hood Valley stood for. He tells also of how the Rev. Burgoyne invited a returned Nisei to speak from his pulpit, and reminded objecting Legionnaires that some of them had never left our shores in World War I, while Sergeant Gosho had earned a number of decorations for bravery in action. He tells of the local residents who refused to patronize shops which displayed "No Jap Trade" signs, and so forced their removal.

It is encouraging to see that, although bigotry flourishes in the North as well as in the South, there are communities with sufficient courage and patriotism to clean their own houses. There is probably no other way in which it can be done satisfactorily, since outside pressure merely solidifies local prejudices as was shown in the re-nomination of Senator Bilbo.

WHAT'S WRONG WITH VISUAL EDUCATION?

To a great many teachers, particularly in the social studies field, visual education is a vexing problem. They are well aware that it can be an exceedingly valuable adjunct to good teaching. They know that a wide-awake teacher uses every means to make her work better. They want to have good visual aids to help them, but they find that the difficulties are often enormous. The truth is that the use of visual aids in the average school is unsatisfactory, generally through no fault of the teachers. The obstacles to be overcome are too great.

In *The Clearing House* for May, Joseph M. Tewinkel, assistant superintendent of Spokane schools, devoted an excellent article to a discussion of why the situation is so discouraging. His primary conclusion is that the wrong people are making the films. He points out that most so-called educational films are made by small commercial producers with little knowledge of what the schools need. There is a wealth of good material which has been made

by the big Hollywood firms, but they will not release it until its commercial possibilities have been completely used up.

Social studies teachers are particularly well aware of the paucity of good material. Aside from travelogues, there is little enough which would be worth a class period to a high school civics, history or social problems class. Most problems of human relations require explanation in human terms, with human actors. With the high technical standards in acting and staging to which modern children are accustomed by reason of constant movie-going, any presentation below the Hollywood grade fails its educational purpose and draws only snickers. Any teacher who has recently tried, for example, to show the *Chronicles of America* films to juniors and seniors can probably speak feelingly along these lines. Mr. Tewinkel believes that as long as Hollywood will not make its facilities available for educational use, the task of making films should become the job of the textbook publishing houses. He points out that they know better than anyone else what the schools need, and that they have the financial resources to do the thing properly. Moreover he feels that the combining of visual aids and textbooks under one sponsorship would make them mutually more valuable and increase the sale of both.

Mr. Tewinkel goes on to point out the faults in the present "system" of distribution in school films. Not only are there comparatively few good films obtainable, but most of these must be secured by ordering from a state library or booking agency months in advance of use. The chances are remote that a particular teacher can secure the film he wants for his class on the exact day when it will be most useful. Films and other visual aids should be owned by the school district or by a small group of schools so that they will be readily available on one or two days' notice. They should be as accessible for the use of the class as the reference books in the library are for individual pupils.

Mr. Tewinkel's third complaint concerns the bewildering variety of visual aid equipment which is being produced. There are so many kinds that few schools and fewer teachers can make an intelligent choice or an efficient use of them. Mr. Tewinkel advocates the design

of a standard mobile piece of apparatus combining six features: a 16 mm. movie projector, a 35 mm. film strip, a 2x2 slide projector, a phonograph turntable, a radio, and a public address system. The idea is most attractive, and it is to be hoped that some manufacturer will lead the way with it. There is no question but that the present methods of producing, distributing and using visual aids are discouraging to a progressive teacher, and Mr. Tewinkel's criticisms and suggestions deserve wide notice.

TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE

A rather large segment of our working population is employed by municipal, state, or Federal governments. While many of these people hold positions as typists or file clerks and require skills similar to those in private business, a great many do work requiring special knowledge and training. Because our educational system has made no particular effort to prepare young people for civil service careers, often this training must be obtained on the job. Here is a vocational field which has been neglected by the schools; moreover, it is one in which proper training could pay immense dividends in better citizenship and more efficient government. We provide curricula in our high schools for stenographers, auto mechanics and many other vocations; why not set up curricula for training in government employment? Some colleges recognize the need and seek to meet it, but the preparation should begin at the secondary school level.

This suggestion is the basis of an article in *High Points* for June by Theodore Huebner of the New York City Schools. He proposes that New York establish a special high school for government service, just as it now has high schools for training in printing, music and art, food trades, aeronautics, and other special types of vocations. As he says, the ever-growing policy of governmental regulation at home, and America's widening interests abroad, will continue to create a steady demand for trained public personnel which the schools should recognize. The larger cities should include special vocational schools for the purpose, and smaller systems might give this type of work recognition in the setting up of curricula.

Mr. Huebner makes some suggestions as to

the nature of the courses that would be offered in a high school for government service. In addition to the basic work in English, social studies and health, there should be specialized work in social studies, foreign languages, economics, geography, science, and commercial subjects. The social studies would stress recent world history, and the history of those nations which are of particular importance in world problems. Economics courses would include work on international law, foreign trade, foreign policy, and labor problems. Foreign languages would be stressed more than they are in the conventional high school, and should include a course in general linguistics intended to provide the student with at least the ability to recognize and pronounce a variety of languages.

Commercial training would include special practice with government forms and documents, while science courses would give special attention to problems on the construction and maintenance of public works, foods and drugs, sanitation, transportation and housing. Mr. Huebner's suggestions are well taken. The need for this type of specialized training is obvious, and long over-due. It is to be hoped measures will soon be taken to provide it.

THE FUTURE TEACHER

Dr. Roscoe West, President of the State Teachers College at Trenton, N. J., had an interesting article in *The Educational Forum* for March on the future of teaching as a career. He has been troubled as have many others in education by the fact that teaching, at least below the college level, is not a respected profession to the extent it should be. The American public professes a very high regard for Education, yet holds in low esteem those who are engaged in it. There are, of course, many individual exceptions, but the fact remains that a school-teacher is regarded as a peculiar species of person, not to be taken seriously outside the classroom.

In how many average American communities do the teachers in the local schools have social prestige equal to that of the real-estate dealer, the lawyer, the cashier of the bank, or the lead-

ing insurance broker? The psychological causes of this condition are most interesting, and not easy to analyze. To some extent it may be due to a feeling that teachers have impractical interests; to make a career of teaching biology to children may seem odd to a business man. Yet the same individual working as a biologist for a large corporation would command much more respect. It may be the fact that teachers spend their lives working with children rather than with other adults; yet physicians who specialize in children's diseases suffer no loss of prestige by this fact. There can be little question, however, that the root of the trouble lies in the human tendency to respect success, especially as measured in terms of income.

In many ways education has not achieved the same measure of efficient results that other enterprises have; the public school system was weak and poor for too long for it yet to have overcome its early deficiencies. It is still inadequate in many parts of the country. Those engaged in it at the pitifully low salaries generally found are naturally regarded as incompetent to earn more in any other field. Too frequently this is true. It forms a vicious circle; teachers are paid low salaries because they will accept them; because they accept them, the public regards them as inferior; and because they are regarded thus and paid little, competent persons either do not become teachers or soon leave the profession. Until this circle is broken from some direction, we will continue to have low pay, lack of esteem, and, unfortunately, some inferior teachers.

Public approval will come when teachers are paid on the same levels as other trained professions. The impetus will have to come from within the ranks of education. Standards for teachers will have to be raised voluntarily to a much higher level; the end-product of education must be clarified and markedly improved; and salary levels must be forced upward by the same pressure methods which other economic groups have used so successfully. Carried on simultaneously and with determination, such reforms cannot help but bring about a radical change, not only in the public's attitude toward teachers, but in the value of American education.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

This Our World: A Pageant of World History.

By Arthur C. Bining, Arthur C. Howland, and Richard H. Shryock. New York: Newson and Company, 1946. Pp. xiv, 664. Illustrated. \$2.80.

The rapidly unfolding events of World War II and the many new problems resulting therefrom have created a different conception of world relationships and a demand by teachers of the social studies for a new approach. Young people, too, want the materials of their courses to be selected in the light of present-day interests. This new world history text for secondary schools gives promise of filling the need.

One of the Social Studies Series, edited by Arthur C. Bining, co-author of *Teaching the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools*, it combines the merits of scholarly authorship and a clear and readable style. Its scope and length are adequate and yet not too cumbersome to discourage and confuse young students.

The first chapter states the problems of the world of today. "For the past thirty years or so, people have lived in a world in which there has been much turmoil and confusion." Two world wars, total wars, have been fought. World distances have almost disappeared. Social unrest and economic troubles have developed. We have seen a great struggle between democracies and dictatorships. But, it is stated, to understand today's problems it is necessary to follow the development of civilization through the ages. This includes the social and economic forces—industry, science, the arts, and religions. The material is selected and organized to do this.

The concept of "One World" is recognized by including the background and relationship of all peoples. The earliest fertile river valley civilizations in India and China are considered along with those of Egypt and Mesopotamia. The unit on religions has five sections: Judaism, Christianity, Buddhism, Confucianism, and Mohammedanism. The units on the development of Nationalism and Democracy includes the Latin American countries.

Teachers who wish to stress geography will find the book quite helpful. Geographical influences are recognized and a well-selected list of maps, some in color, as well as suggestions for map exercises are there.

The democratic way of life is presented as being the best way. In man's long struggle to improve his world he has made progress when liberal forms of government have replaced arbitrary rule.

The organization of *This Our World* is chronological by units with topical sections within the units. Each unit opens with a Preview and closes with review questions, Things to Do, and graded book lists.

The reviewer's reading of the book left him with the feeling that the young readers will finish with a fuller understanding of their world and a stimulation for more active and intelligent citizenship.

IRA KREIDER

Looking Ahead in Education. Edited by J. Wayne Wrightstone and Morris Meister. New York: Ginn and Company, 1945. Pp. xvi, 151. \$1.50.

Contributions to this brochure were submitted by associates of Dr. Otis W. Caldwell, leader in experimental education, who retired in 1935 from the directorship of the Institute of School Experimentation. On December 18, 1944, Dr. Caldwell attained the age of seventy-five, and this book is a testimony of his associates' esteem and friendship.

Each chapter or section, written by experts—friends of Dr. Caldwell (some were former students of his)—is full of thought and interest. All chapters emphasize the theme, "What's Ahead?" What's ahead, for instance, in education for world service, in community research, in experimental education, in measurement, personality analysis, intelligence testing, occupational research? What's ahead in elementary education, rural schools, reading, the teaching of history, social studies, science, biology, mathematics, music, the school library, military training, cooperative authorship?

For the reader who is a teacher, primary interest will be in the chapter that represents his chosen field. But the true teacher is interested in all fields, so every chapter of the book possesses interesting material. Indeed, one needn't be a teacher to appreciate this book. It is well written, understandable, and gives one a fresh feeling of courage, faith, and optimism with regard to the future of education.

As the editors assert, the primary purpose of the brochure is to "look ahead to the new trends in education, to the areas of experimentation and appraisal that will improve the quality of education and the quality of citizens thus educated." The statements, therefore, "are prophecies of the design of things to come in education." As such, they are stimulating, sometimes startling, perhaps occasionally idealistic, and rarely impractical. The preface and introduction are well worth reading. Then follow 150 pages of keenly challenging material.

One of the ideas constantly emphasized is the need for better teacher training in all fields, a concentration upon those who are planning to enter the teaching profession. Much experimentation to improve teaching is needed.

Some of the plans are almost Utopian-sounding—but since twenty or twenty-five years can bring amazing changes, many of these ideas may not be so unbelievable as they sound. The chapter on elementary education is perhaps the most idealistic, but no educator reading it can deny that the profession of education *ought* to achieve these goals.

Another interesting repetitive idea is the use and aim of all fields toward promoting the individual, toward social betterment, toward enhancing the democratic way of life. The chapters on science, mathematics, and military training carry this refrain, as well as those on social science, history and personality.

The chapter on music education is alive with fascinating possibilities, as is the one on reading. But why go on? This is a really worthwhile book and should be one of the "musts" on your list.

LOLA BANE

Argo Community High School
Argo, Illinois

Democratic Human Relations: Promising Practices in Intergroup and Intercultural Edu-

cation in the Social Studies. Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Edited by Hilda Taba and William Van Til. Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1945. Pp. xv, 366. Cloth, \$2.30; Paper, \$2.00.

The pressures of the war years produced a spirit of sharing, of camaraderie, of friendliness, a sense of belonging, among all Americans that made strangers talk on railroad trains and public places and have a common sympathy toward all. A recent magazine article called this "The Open Heart." Already it seems to be growing less now that peace has come. We are fearful of increasing competition for jobs, unemployment, and higher living costs that will aggravate group tensions, bitterness, and intolerance.

Never was the need for intergroup education greater than now. The social studies program should give ample recognition to the problems of racial, religious, and national minorities. "Toleration" is inadequate. Talking about the quaint and interesting customs of other lands misses the point. Slumming in congested city areas may only verify the children's conceptions of the filth and squalor of the families living there. Cultural democracy, mutual understandings, appreciations of group contributions, and the desire to promote fuller economic and social opportunities for minority groups are goals that should be aimed at with greater diligence.

The yearbook is a cooperative project. The typical practices included are from several hundred reports of teachers doing work in the intergroup and intercultural area and from many visits to schools and teachers by a group of nine observers.

Since the editors felt that intergroup education should have an integral part in the social studies program, Part One is to orient the teacher and to consider curriculum problems and the planning of learning activities. The importance and aims of education for democratic human relations are stated. The principles and steps in curriculum planning are given for the preparation of units of study.

Part Two surveys practices in elementary and secondary school social studies courses; school activities, such as dramatics, clubs,

forums, and school government; community surveys and use of community resources; and guidance both as done by administrators and teachers and by guidance directors. Part Three discusses some basic concepts in the education of lower-class groups and a very helpful section of materials and sources.

The study indicates that many schools have a promising program of intercultural education. One notices, though, that many of the reports come from private schools, notably Friends schools, and from large city schools with outstanding department heads. Quite likely they are far ahead of current practices. It is easy to agree with the editors' conclusion that intensive study and pioneering by educators in the task of building more democratic human relations in America is needed. The underlying philosophy and procedures and sampling of practices found in the yearbook supply a fundamental contribution to a major problem in American education.

Henry Barnard's "American Journal of Education." By Richard E. Thursfield. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1945. Pp. 359. \$3.75.

In this attractive volume the author has undertaken to tell the story of one of the major efforts at educational journalism in this country, to assay the editor's conception of his undertaking, to judge of his competency, and, as far as possible, to show the relation of social forces to Barnard's work and estimate its influence. In the prosecution of his design he has explored the rich collection of Barnard manuscripts at New York University and less extensive holdings elsewhere. The findings, as presented here, deal with the origin of the journal, policy and standards, the contribution of the journal to our knowledge of American and foreign education, its leadership and probable effectiveness.

Though the history of the *Journal* is a large part of Barnard's life, biographical material pertaining to the editor is excluded as far as feasible, this volume being the initial fraction of a full-length portrait which the author is preparing. Though there are occasional unhappy lapses in respect to language, and some, the reviewer thinks, which pertain to fact and judgments, they do not measurably alter his fundamentally favorable opinion of the work.

All who read it will profit, and look forward to the appearance of the Barnard biography. Thorough documentation, two useful appendices furnishing bibliographical data on the volumes of the series and identification of the unsigned contributions, and a twenty-eight page index enhance the value of the text itself, especially for research workers.

But the book is not for specialists alone. At its best, it sheds light on Barnard's social conservatism, his desire to avoid certain fundamental controversial matters, his biases respecting New England materialists and radicals, the influential role of German scholarship and other significant themes.

The *Journal's* failure to win the popularity its editor desired, so evident from Dr. Thursfield's pages, is what one would expect in light of the general apathy of American educators towards scholarly undertakings. In some measure it attained the editor's goal through the influence exerted on the leaders of American education, as the author says, but influence of this sort, it seems, may be readily overrated.

THOMAS WOODY

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

See Here, Private Enterprise! By H. Sabin Bagger. New York: The Island Workshop Press Cooperative, 1945. Pp. 152. Cloth, \$2.50; Paper, \$1.50.

An indictment of big business, this book is written in plain and simple language, much of it in the form of a dialogue between "John" and "Mac." The thesis is that the bulk of our national resources are concentrated in the hands of a small number of corporations and banking institutions. The industrial monopolists, operating solely for the profit motive, try to get the people to support their interests through a program of propaganda by the press, radio and pamphleteering. Although they give lip-service to free enterprise, the great corporations really want more government subsidies and less interference. Neither are they, according to the author, in favor of a competitive system. In fact their very existence is based on the principle of monopoly eliminating competition by small business. Instead of aiming to provide an abundance of products and full employment for the people, production is often cut to maintain high prices.

The book makes a plea for an economy in which business and industry shall operate for the welfare of all the people; that we work for a land of plenty instead of scarcity; that the government shall regulate big business in the interests of the public rather than be the servant of the wealthy few.

If we are to attain democracy, the author says, the people must become conscious of economic injustices and use their government to make their country what they want it to be. They should support Congressmen working for independent business, and also the government bureaus and independent service agencies that help by giving reports such as those of the La Follette Civil Liberties Committee, the Black Committee on lobbying, the Bone patents reports, the Truman reports on the defense program, and material in the files of the Anti-Trust Division of the Department of Justice. The reading of books on our economic system like those of Carl Becker, Stuart Chase, and Harold Laski is suggested.

A book like this might well be used by secondary school students if the teacher takes account of their immaturity of thought and limited experiences. They should study the opposing points of view and defer their conclusions until they have sufficient evidence to make sound judgments. Otherwise their statements may take the form of name-calling and unfounded accusations.

An Analysis of Social Change. By Godfrey and Monica Wilson, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. New York: Macmillan Company, 1945. Pp. 177. \$2.25.

Mr. and Mrs. Wilson wrote this little book as a result of field work in Tongongika, Nyosaland and Northern Rhodesia, Africa, where they were able to observe the impact of civilization upon primitive society and the structural changes that have accompanied it. These effects are described here in order to see what fundamental relations may be discovered between the various changes observed. The book discusses the African society in question; it presents a scale of measurements, social elements, composition of primitive and civilized society, equilibrium and disequilibrium of society and classes. The book ends with a short chapter on practical implications.

The volume shows that the authors have a thorough knowledge of the changes that have taken place in the African society they observed. "The members of all societies are equally dependent upon one another, but the range of their interdependence voices geographically and theoretically." All societies value continuity. They point out that relations in society have a positive or cultural content and a negative or structural form, and that social pressure produces social structure. Throughout the entire book the authors explain basic changes in American society and then compare these with the same general corresponding types in African society. One of the most interesting chapters deals with equilibrium and disequilibriums in the two societies. Their economic, religious, cultural, and social conflicts are incentives for social change. They say: "Not only is the degree of disequilibrium in one district dependent upon the degree in others within Central Africa; it is dependent upon the degree of disequilibrium in the world as a whole . . . Thus the muddled oppositions we describe in Central Africa are but one loose manifestation of the blind and contradictory strivings of our world."

The volume's last chapter deals with a discussion of the practical implications of their comparative study. (1) Change from primitive to civilized necessarily involves certain specific social changes. (2) Insofar as the characteristics of civilized society are not developing in proportion to one another, there is radical opposition and maladjustment. (3) Disequilibrium is at present increasing in Central Africa, but it cannot continue to do so indefinitely.

On the whole the book is well written but isn't always easy to follow. Such comparisons are not always simple to describe. Students of social change and social processes will find this book very valuable.

T. EARL SULLENGER

Department of Sociology
Municipal University of Omaha
Omaha, Nebraska

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Edited By R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
Philadelphia, Pa.

Restless India. By Lawrence K. Rosinger.
Headline Series No. 55, January-February,

1946. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1946. Pp. 128. 35 cents.

The Earl of Halifax, who was Viceroy of India from 1926-1931, presents the introductory statement on British policy toward India.

Mr. Rosinger begins his exposition with a description of the physical geography of India. India's past glories and present social conditions, its peasants, city life, modern industry, and its political problems are the author's special concern.

An understanding of the relation of Britain and India, the latter's government, struggles toward independence and contributions to victory in World War II, is necessary in order to appreciate some of the leading issues of our time. These include the demand of colonial peoples for national independence, the industrialization of economically undeveloped areas, the alteration in the international position of the British Empire, the role that Americans are to play in the post-war world, and the relationship of the United States to the Indian people in the preservation of the peace.

The pamphlet contains a documentary appendix and suggested bibliography.

For a Stronger Congress. By Philip S. Broughton. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 116. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1946. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

The pamphlet does not propose a formal plan for reorganization. It examines and criticizes existing plans. For example the La Follette-Monroney Committee's proposals for Congressional reorganization are criticized because they failed: (1) to require selection of committee chairmen for intelligent leadership instead of seniority, (2) to propose an end to the filibuster, and (3) to end errand-running functions, thus permitting Congress to get down to the main business of policy-making and control.

The author maintains that every proposal for the reform of Congress should be tested against the yardstick of Congress' main job which is "to determine policy, to authorize adequate administrative organization, and to review and control the administration of policy."

The 150-year-old conflict between the Congress and the Executive is regarded by the author as the most dangerous element in our

political system. This he would resolve in a joint legislative executive council or joint cabinet.

He concentrates on five problems—selection of better Congressmen, improving the Congressional committee system, additional Congressional staff personnel, improved congressional control of spending, and overcoming the conflict between Congress and the President.

Alcoholism is a Sickness. By Herbert Yahraes. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 118. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1946. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

Alcoholism is a serious medical, social and public health problem. An alcoholic is one whose drinking interferes with normal living and who upon taking one drink cannot refrain from taking more. This pamphlet maintains that the community should become informed concerning the problems of alcoholism. Each individual should help to ease up the social pressure to drink. The alcoholic should be encouraged to become rehabilitated in clinics such as those established by Alcoholics Anonymous.

Should the Government Support Science? By Waldemar Kaempffert. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 119. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1946. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

Waldemar Kaempffert warns that unless the United States supports a proposed National Foundation of Science, which can engage in long-range planning, the United States will lag behind other nations in scientific research. He admits that many scientists in this country have been opposed to planning because it implies control. This implication, in Mr. Kaempffert's opinion, is not justified.

He points to the Soviet Union as an example of what can be achieved when research is organized and planned as it is by the Soviet Academy of Sciences, which maps out the whole field of science.

The author would include the social science in this scheme of planned research, stating:

"Combine the natural and social sciences in a single division in accordance with plans now looked upon with favor, and we even lay the foundation for a science of civilization."

The Fertile Crescent. Art and History of Bible Lands as Illustrated in the Walters Art

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Gallery. By Dorothy Kent Hill. Baltimore: The Trustees of the Walters Art Gallery, 1944. Illustrated. Pp. 32.

The text deals with Oriental history (before 3000 B.C. to 1 B.C.) which is still in the process of reconstruction. Illustrations of the text include seal cylinders and their impressions, figurines, Sumerian clay nails, Assyrian clay tablets as business documents typical of their time, Babylonian boundary stones, a typical silver Phoenician bowl, an heroic alabaster winged genius, a Persian bronze head of a bull, and Persian bronze horse trappings. The pamphlet concludes with a time chart showing chronology in Palestine, Syria and Asia Minor and Mesopotamia from before 3000 B.C. to 1 B.C.

Fashions of the Past—Ancient Greek Dress. Illustrated from the Collections of the Walters Art Gallery. By Dorothy Kent Hill. Baltimore: Published by the Trustees, 1945. Illustrated. Pp. 16.

Only a few of the simplest and most fundamental costumes have been selected for illustration on thirteen pages of this booklet.

Greek clothing was loose-fitting and graceful. The basic garment was the *chiton*, a shirt worn by both men and women. The *peplos* was the fashionable garment for women during the fifth century B.C. The common out-of-door wrap for men and women was the *himation*. Shorter cloaks, more like our shawls, were the *chlaina* for men and women, and the *chlamys* for men, especially soldiers.

Soldiers in Ancient Days. By Dorothy Kent Hill. Baltimore: Published by the Trustees of the Walters Art Gallery, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 8. 15 cents. Postage additional.

This booklet was published on the occasion of the opening of a temporary exhibition of "Soldiers in Ancient Days" in the Walters Collection. The illustrations show figures of soldiers on pottery drinking cups and on vases. Statuettes of soldiers, a bronze dagger and a bronze helmet give the reader some idea of ancient military equipment.

The Dance in Classical Times. By Dorothy Kent Hill. Illustrated from the Collections of the Walters Art Gallery. Baltimore:

Published by the Trustees of the Walters Art Gallery, 1945. Illustrated. Pp. 16.

Greek artists represented each action at its greatest extreme. They invented a device for letting drapery express motion. This is exemplified by the illustrated dancing maenad. Another device for expressing motion is distortion.

Dances served various purposes. Some had a religious basis such as the dance in honor of Dionysos, the god of wine. Others are the warrior dances. Their modern equivalent, according to the author, is the review. A third and very elusive type of dance is the choral dance.

Illustrations include dancing maenads, dancers on cups, vases and sarcophagi, and statuettes of dancers.

U.S.O. Educational Activities for Those About to Return to Civilian Life. By David Danzig, Director of U.S.O. Program Services. New York: Program Services Division, Department of Operations, Continental United States, U.S.O., Inc., 1945, Pp. 39.

Six member agencies of the U.S.O. sponsored this bulletin: The Young Men's Christian Associations, The National Catholic Community Service, the Salvation Army, the Young Women's Christian Associations, The National Jewish Welfare Board, and the National Travelers Aid Association.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Government of the American People. By Earl L. Shoup. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 1206. \$4.50.

Written for both the college student and the general adult reader, this textbook describes government in action. It attempts to relate the structure, the objectives, and the functioning of the government to the political activities of the people.

American Foundations for Social Welfare. By Shelby M. Harrison and F. Emerson Andrews. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1946. Pp. 249. \$2.00.

Has chapters on the history, organization, resources, activities, and trends of philanthropic foundations, together with a descriptive directory of 505 foundations.

Child Psychology and Development. By Louis P. Thorpe. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946. Pp. xxvi, 781. \$4.50. A college textbook.

Minority Problems in the Public Schools: A Study of Administrative Policies and Practices in Seven School Systems. By Theodore Brameld. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. Pp. 264. \$2.50.

A study of how school systems in seven representative cities have approached problems of intercultural relations.

Race and Nation in the United States. By E. A. Benians. Cambridge: At the University Press, 1946. Pp. 48. \$.75.

A lecture on the intermingling of racial groups in the United States from colonial times to the present.

The Future in Perspective. By Sigmund Neumann. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1946. Pp. ix, 406.

A history of events at home and abroad since 1914, written to explain the forces of these years and to present the challenge of the future.

Science for Democracy. Edited, with an Introduction, by Jerome Nathanson. New York, on Morningside Heights: King's Crown Press, 1946. Pp. x, 170. \$2.50.

Papers from the third Conference on the Scientific Spirit and Democratic Faith.

Occupational Life: A Vocational Guidebook. By Verl A. Teeter. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946. Pp. 175. Paper cover. \$.96.

A student's workbook.

The Catholic Church in the Diocese of Vincennes, 1847-1877. By Sister Mary Carol Schroeder. The Catholic University of American History. Washington, D. C.: The Catholic University of America Press, 1946. Pp. 227. No price.

A doctoral dissertation.

Open Windows: Stories of People and Places. By Louise deKoven Bowen. Chicago: Ralph Fletcher Seymour, 1946. Pp. 272. No price.

Reminiscences of girlhood days, world travels, and welfare work at Hull House with Jane Addams, covering a space of eighty-seven years.

The University at the Crossroads. By Henry E.

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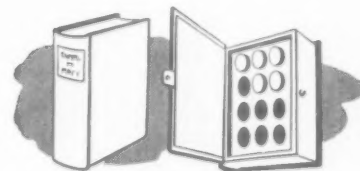
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A co-operative study, with illustrations of test materials, of the measurement of understandings—not of skills and factual information—in the secondary school areas of instruction.
- Educating America's Children: Elementary School Curriculum and Methods*. By Fay Adams. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946. Pp. xv, 490. \$3.75.
Designed as a text for courses in curriculum and methods of teaching in the elementary schools.
- Career Opportunities*. Edited by Mark Morris. Washington, D. C.: Progress Press, 1946. Pp. 354. \$3.25.
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A record of the chaotic brand of democracy that failed so tragically.
- Elementos de Geografia de Cuba*. Por Levi Marrero. Havana, Cuba: Editorial Minerva, 1946. Pp. xv, 540. Illustrated.
Written in Spanish, well illustrated.
- Central-Eastern Europe: Crucible of World Wars*. Edited by Joseph C. Roucek. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Pp. xii, 679. \$5.00.
The chapters, some written by the editor, others by his collaborators, are on the backgrounds and current problems of the Eastern European countries.
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- Two Worlds: A Realistic Approach to the Problem of Keeping the Peace*. By William B. Ziff. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. Pp. 335. \$3.00.
The author, a writer of a former best seller, has little faith in the United Nations Organization or in the feasibility of American support of the British Empire. He advocates that the United States permit the USSR to expand to its natural limits and that the United States be the leader in an amalgamation of the West.
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- Guide to Public Affairs Organizations with Notes on Public Affairs Informational Materials*. By Charles R. Read and Samuel Marble. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1946. Pp. 129. Paper Cover. \$2.00.
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- Labor Looks at Education*. By Mark Starr. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1946. Pp. 51. \$1.00.
The Inglis Lecture for 1946.